The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 4, 1904.

The Week.

Judge Parker bids fair to go down in American political history as the "Complete Letter-Writer." His telegram to the St. Louis Convention cleared the political atmosphere like a flash of lightning. The fearless independence of his communication extorted even from the most hide-bound professional Republicans an involuntary round of applause, but ever since then they have been apologizing for their unintentional candor. They have even gone so far as to call the message a trick, and have persistently been asking why Judge Parker did not express his views on the money issue until after he had been nominated. Even this refuge has now failed them, and the publication in the August *Review of Reviews* of a private letter sent by Judge Parker on June 17 to Mr. Creelman in behalf of the editor of the *World*, has bowled them all over again like a lot of wooden nine-pins. The letter in question reads as follows:

"ALBANY, June 17, 1904.

"You may be right in thinking that an expression of my views is necessary to secure the nomination. If so, let the nomination go. I took the position that I have maintained—first, because I deemed it to be my duty to the court; second, because I do not think the nomination for such an office should be sought. I still believe that I am right, and therefore expect to remain steadfast.—Very truly yours,

"ALTON B. PARKER."

There speaks the man first of all, and the trained and conscientious jurist in the second place. The American people know a man when they see one, even if he do not parade with drum and trumpet.

Judge Parker may be open to rebuke for having voted for Bryan, but Speaker Cannon is the last man on earth to taunt anybody with having been wrong on the money question. "Uncle Joe" has about as bad a silver record as any Republican, and that is saying a good deal. In 1878 he voted to pass the Bland bill over President Hayes's veto. "Cannon of Illinois" appears in the list of those voting for the Sherman silver-purchase law in 1890; and when, three years later, the repeal of that mother of all our woes was being forced through Congress, Mr. Cannon was again on the wrong side, being one of the few Republicans who refused to listen to the united demand of the business men and bankers of the country. Once more, in 1895, when President Cleveland urged Congress to make the 3 per cent. bonds payable in gold, so as to save $500,000 a year, Mr. Cannon voted against the joint resolution. Is it not, then, a little impudent, even for a chartered "rambler" like "Uncle Joe," to come out at this late day with his comically solemn denunciation of any man who ever favored silver? His own language could certainly be retorted with double force upon himself: "I congratulate him. It is better to be right late than never."

Speaker Cannon's case is peculiarly flagrant, but the Republican party, as a whole, is as far as possible from being in a position to rake over the dead ashes of silver. In 1888 the national Republican platform denounced President Cleveland for his "efforts to demonetize silver." Mr. Roosevelt was for that declaration then, though, to hear him now, you would think him an advocate of the single gold standard since before the world was created. Indeed, there would be no end if it came to "twitting on facts" in the matter of Republican friendliness to silver in recent times. Lodge was almost as unblushing a bimetallist as Cannon, and introduced some of the pettiest measures ever heard of to "do something for silver." President Roosevelt himself was only last year taken in the snare of a new commission to arrange an "international par of exchange" so as to give the silver miners a lift. But all this recrimination and comparison of records is happily pointless to-day. The silver issue is dead. Bryan himself has sat upon the corpse and pronounced it to be without a flicker of life. It is for intelligent men to turn their backs on that dead past and address themselves to the living issues of the present.

Mr. Charles Francis Adams's assertion that "there is no issue before the American people so important or so difficult to meet as the issue of curbing the Senate," will find many supporters in both the great parties. With his doctrine that this country needs nothing so much as a vigorous Opposition, even Republican leaders will agree. But they will dissent with great unanimity from his idea that the Republican party is now admirably fitted to be that Opposition. The "outs," in their opinion, should always be the Democrats, who would thus fulfil a really useful purpose in life, particularly in view of the belief of Messrs. Root and Hay that they will never have the capacity for governing constructively. In another respect Mr. Adams has done a very valuable service. Some timid souls dislike the thought of Judge Parker's election because they fear a deadlock of the Government, since the Senate must remain Republican for at least two years. Mr. Adams truthfully states that such a condition at Washington would be "the very best result which could possibly be brought about." With an Executive, supported by the House, arrayed against the Senate, "light would then be thrown into dark places, while no legislation could be enacted except what was thoroughly well considered and safe." Mr. Adams need only point to the cowardly refusal of the Republican leaders to permit a legislative investigation of the postal scandals to demonstrate the force of his contention. It alone is proof positive of his dictum that "the Republican party has been too long in power."

An independent Republican ticket in Massachusetts this year would certainly cause the oldest inhabitant to rub his eyes. The Bay State has usually taken its Republicanism straight. Probably no one manufacturing section has derived so little benefit from prohibitive duties, but, by a strange irony of fate, Massachusetts has for many years kept at Washington the very high priest of "stand-patters." There cannot be any prosperity, in Lodge's opinion, unless the tariff is kept at top notch. The business men of New England think otherwise. They believe there is as much money in selling as in buying, but how are they going to sell if Lodge forbids them to ship their goods to Canada? He tells them it is an insult to the President even to desire such a thing. But the Massachusetts Republicans are pretty sure of one thing—Lodge does not love the President so much as he loves Lodge. He has been too busy in the past to count the people clamoring for Canadian reciprocity, but now they mean to give him a chance. It is even said they will run that arch-apostate, Eugene Foss, for Governor on an independent ticket next November, and ask every candidate for the Legislature how he stands on reciprocity. If they are serious, Lodge will, of course, see new light. But is it necessary for them to bother him in this way? They can have what they want if they assure him that they actually have the votes.

Generosity to the old soldier is apparently not incompatible with bidding for votes in support of the Republican nominee. The Commissioner of Pensions has announced that his report will issue earlier this year than usual. The reason is that the statement is expected to prove a good campaign document for the Administration. "Special Order No. 78," whereby Mr. Roosevelt augmented the pension deluge, is to come in for special treatment. Under this order, which went into effect only on the 13th of last April, there were 3,859 original pensions granted, and 14,768 pensions increased. At the end of the fiscal year, however, there

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were pending about 40,000 applications—"and a majority of these," so the Washington dispatch remarks, "will be favorably acted upon." This will, of course, be excellent news to the taxpayers of the country, especially when the Treasury deficit last month footed up $17,000,000. Mr. Ware, the Commissioner of Pensions, will point out in his report that the total number of pensioners is just less than 1,000,000. In a nation of 80,000,000, where the adult male population may be represented by 16,000,000, there are 1,000,000 persons in large part supported by taxes mostly paid by the other 15,000,000; and this, forty years after the close of the conflict which principally created the need of a pensioned class. The pension report may yet prove a boomerang.

Mr. Gompers as Procurator of the Holy Synod of the Job-Trust, *alias* the Federation of Labor, announces that he will officially catechize every candidate for Congress. The replies to the Gomperian Inquisition must be a categorical "yes" or "no"; and failure so to reply within ten days will be construed as a negative answer, and will subject the recusant to the pains and penalties of being opposed by the labor vote. The three queries which our American Pobedonosteff puts to the trembling candidate are: (1) Will you vote against government by injunction, by voting for our bill on that subject? (2) will you vote for our eight-hour bill? (3) will you vote for the referendum? We do not want to interfere in what is none of our business, but we should like to suggest that the "little list" ought to be supplemented, if Mr. Gompers is to be sure of his man. It would, we submit, be proper to add the following interrogatories: (4) Are you in favor of beating, maiming, and killing all scabs and strike-breakers who are willing to take up jobs that Federationists have quit? (5) do you acknowledge that the Constitution of the United States is subordinate to the mandates of the Federation of Labor and the ukases issued in pursuance thereof? (6) how much are you ready to plank down as insurance against a further persecution by the Federation? It is probable that only the last question need be answered, provided a satisfactory and unequivocal reply is made thereto.

The critical feature of the Fall River strike has not yet been pointed out. If the manufacturers and operatives are in sore straits to-day merely because the mills have run too long on high-priced cotton, the situation will right itself in time. But is that the whole of the trouble? Behind all the talk of the mill owners is a constant iteration of the theme, "Southern competition." The cry is being taken up where it was dropped in 1898. At that time there was genuine alarm in the North over the rapid increase of cotton mills in the South, and in Massachusetts the Legislature was asked to grant longer hours of labor and to rebate taxes. Then came the boom years: the foreign demand for American cotton goods increased astonishingly; there was business enough for both Southern and Northern mills; the threatened decay of New England's leading industry was less talked about. But were the five years between 1898 and 1903 more than a breathing-spell? Must Northern wages, after all, come down closer to the Southern if the Fall River mills are to keep in operation? Northern mill treasurers say yes; and though careful students dispute this, none can follow the course of events without more or less anxiety.

The right to strike is fully established, but as much cannot yet be said of the right to regard yourself as still in the employ of the person against whom you have struck. On Thursday one of the big packing concerns posted a notice that "all help leaving our employ July 25-26 will be paid in full." This "was greeted with angry exclamations" by the strikers. Indeed, it was regarded as a "bomb." Not in their employ! Who ever heard of such a thing? The strikers have not waived any rights by striking. They have thrown down their tools and declined to work for the packers; they have refused to let other people take their place, they have put their employers to a heavy loss—in fact, have done everything possible to destroy their business. But what of that? The butchers have a divine right to quit the packers, but the packers have no right at all to declare the relationship severed. Of course, this view is the sublimation of nonsense, but organized labor has been driven to it logically. Picketing, boycotting, and the union label sufficiently attest labor's belief that the employer has no more rights than his employees are pleased to accord him; and among these is not the right to say that a workman who throws up his job has lost it.

The salaries of the St. Louis Fair officials have all been cut, and a good many employees have been discharged on scant notice. We are afraid the Secretary of the Treasury is to blame for this "sign of prosperity." When the Fair management secured a loan of $4,600,000 from the Government, it hardly expected its creditor to be so rigorous in the matter of payment. But Mr. Shaw began right off to demand his money back. On June 15 he made the Fair live up to contract and turn over to him half the receipts to date, and he has called for his $500,000 every half month since then. The Treasury was piling up a deficit that reminded one of the days before the "McKinley prosperity" set in, and he had to make every cent tell. It was not his fault that business was not good enough to let every one go to the Fair. Still, his action would have been commendable even if the Treasury situation had not required such prompt measures. If the outcome of the St. Louis Fair shall tend in the least to discourage the use of Government funds for such projects in the future, the present situation will not be a matter of regret.

The Charleston *News and Courier* is telling the truth about the recent lynching at Eutawville, S. C., of a negro, Kitt Bookard, for no other reason than for being "impertinently familiar" to a white man. It prints many of the details of the atrocious crime, some of whose features are of a character attributed only to the Sioux, or to the Boxers, or to the wild tribes of the Sudan. Were they to be published in Europe it would be extremely difficult to convince the readers of European newspapers that the whites of South Carolina are not as badly in need of Christianizing as any of the inhabitants of Central Africa or of China. Gov. Heyward has ordered State Solicitor Hildebrand "to prosecute the lynchers regardless of expense and trouble," and that official is leaving no stone unturned to bring the guilty before the bar of justice. He states, however, that he cannot go into all the details in his reports, as they are "too horrible."

Many Southern white men, while favoring the new constitutions, believe that no negro properly qualifying under them should be prevented from voting by force or fraud. The latest appeal of this kind was made by Mr. Fabius H. Bushbee of Raleigh, N. C., at the recent meeting of the Alabama Bar Association in Montgomery, who spoke on "The Southern Lawyer and the Negro." The amendment restricting negro suffrage, but permitting the educated negro to vote should be enforced, Mr. Bushbee contends, "with absolute fairness to every citizen, white or black." He called upon his hearers, as men who had in good faith sworn to uphold the Constitution, "to unite in building up a public sentiment which will see that the amendments are honestly carried out in letter and spirit." This is very encouraging talk in view of the time and place, and is fresh proof that a Tillman and a Vardaman have not an undivided following in their section.

The steamboat inspection disclosures have naturally called forth a number of remedial proposals. We are assured, on the one hand, that the only way to put the service on the proper basis is to turn

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it over to the Revenue Marine. Its officers have to patrol our harbors and coasts, to fix anchorage limits in each port, and to guard against customs frauds. What more natural, say its adherents, than to give them complete authority over all ships entering or plying on our bays and rivers? Equally insistent that the service should be turned over to them are certain naval officers. The reputation of the navy for honesty and integrity is so great that no frauds upon the public would be perpetrated under its management. The *American Shipbuilder* editorially protests against this plan, on the ground that naval men are totally unacquainted with the needs and requirements of the merchant service. It then enunciates the following sound doctrine: "All that the inspection service needs to make it what it should be is an entirely new code of laws governing steam vessels, whether passenger or freight; and, second, a corps of competent, practical, honest officers to administer the laws." Given these two things, and the lives of passengers will be adequately safeguarded, no matter whether the service is directed by a civilian, by a Revenue Marine Captain, or by a naval officer.

Imitation is the sincerest flattery, and consequently our national pride ought to feel subtly titillated by Canada's deportation of such of our citizens as have been recently employed as civil engineers upon Canadian railroads. We were formerly wont to boast that in the act of keeping our markets for ourselves, we furnished an example of industrial patriotism to all the world. It is an example which the world has not been slow to follow. England, Germany, and even Canada, under guise of preventing our "dumping," are contemplating the monopoly of their own markets. Our ingenious exclusion of contract laborers at the instance of job-monopolists, who want their wages kept high by law, is at last being copied by our Northern neighbors. In Winnipeg, despite the anxiety of contractors to secure the services of our civil engineers, the mounted police are evicting the American offenders on the ground that there are too many Americans there now "holding down good jobs that belong to Canadians." How we can object to this way of putting the matter and remain consistent to our avowed principles is a puzzle. A generous reciprocity arrangement, such as is advocated in the Democratic platform, would peacefully solve all these difficulties. But until such a treaty we must expect the Canadians to display simple human nature.

Mr. Balfour's favorite theory of the right of Ministerial colleagues to disagree was sustained in the Commons on Monday by considerably less than the usual Government majority. The occasion of Campbell-Bannerman's motion of censure was the presence of several Cabinet Ministers at a meeting of the Liberal Unionists, at which Mr. Chamberlain's fiscal plan received a resolution of sympathy. The debate from the Opposition benches was an attempt to show the indecency of a Ministry divided on the most important question of the day. Mr. Balfour, it was easy to point out, had refused to commit himself to more than retaliatory duties, or to a food tax at all, but here were his subordinates openly for Imperial reciprocity, with a food tax as its basis. Mr. Balfour succeeded in getting his majority, which implies that fiscal reform is still in the pre-political stage—one of those fictions at which even the Parliamentary mind revolts. Mr. Chamberlain, in fact, would have none of it: Mr. Balfour's "retaliation" was almost worthless—quite so in comparison with Colonial preferentials. The question, so far from being merely economic (Mr. Balfour's constant plea), was ripe for reference to the electorate. Mr. Balfour should become a whole-hogger and promptly call a Colonial conference before the accepted hour shall have passed. So Mr. Chamberlain. Evidently, Mr. Balfour's perfunctory vote of confidence was of little value when he was told to his face that he was a man of half measures, and that his policy of postponing prorogation was folly.

Great Britain has protested against the Russian definition of contraband, and Russia, yielding to superior force, has conceded the point. Forced apologies of this sort prove nothing. To see how fraught with peril the present condition of neutrals on the high seas may be, one has only to imagine that not Russia, but a strong naval Power, say England, were scouring the high seas for contraband, and sinking prizes. Under the present condition of international law, no weaker nation would have any basis of appeal. The world would be dependent solely on the moderation of the Ministry in power, and on the discretion of the average British captain. Russia evidently does not desire war with any European Power, but to protect herself she has had to oppose the contentions of certain great maritime nations. Her excuse is that the practice is by no means settled. For the moment, since, unlike England, she has no fanatical sentiment of omnipotence on the sea to drive her into war, Russia's apologies and amends will suffice to compose matters; but we have no guarantee against a clash to-morrow or in the next war. All these considerations urge the need of an international congress which shall once for all define contraband of war, and the status of neutral ships that carry it. The mere growth of steam shipping has made many of the old customs quite obsolete. For example, it would seem preposterous to seize the *Deutschland* for a case of rifles mislaid in her hold. The penalty would be out of all proportion to the offence. We should have law on this subject before some rash belligerent seizes or sinks a great liner on the off chance.

The significant feature of the latest fighting in Mantchuria is the capture of Simucheng by Nodzu's army. This brings him within fifteen miles of Hai-Cheng, and will relieve Oku's wearied regiments, which have had more than a week of rearguard engagements with Zarubaieff. To the northward it appears that the Russians are offering a stalwart defence to Kuroki's advance, disputing the minor passes beyond Motien foot by foot. Hold Kuroki at a distance they must, for in case of defeat below Liaoyang he could strike a retreating force with crushing effect, and possibly cut it off entirely. Rumors that Kuropatkin may withdraw beyond Mukden should be doubted, if only because the time for a strategic retreat has passed. With Oku and Nodzu hanging to his shattered right flank, he can hardly extricate himself without abandoning the railway altogether. Everything points to the imminence of a decisive battle, in which Kuroki's army is likely to play a striking part.

What is to be the result of the assassination of M. von Plehve upon the internal policy of Russia? This is the question of greatest importance in connection with the crime. If the future is to be judged by the past, it will mean severer measures than ever before. The murder of Gen. Bobrikoff was followed by a letter from the Czar declaring that his Finnish subjects must submit absolutely if they desired any favors from their royal master. But the evil consequences of the killing of Alexander II. are even more striking, and stamp it as one of the most stupid of crimes as well as one of the most sensational. The decree instituting constitutional government, which the murdered Czar signed on the day of his death, was never promulgated—not even by his idealistic grandson. Von Plehve himself was brought into prominence by the killing of the Czar. The universal indignation over the inability of the St. Petersburg police to prevent a crime of which they had had repeated warnings, led to the appointment of Von Plehve as head of that body, from which place he rose rapidly until he became the most powerful minister in the kingdom. May not his death bring forward a still more tyrannical ruler *de facto*? Will it not steel the Czar's heart and frighten him into measures still more at variance with the liberal ideas of which he once seemed possessed? These are questions the Nihilists should have asked themselves, even if they did not remember that two wrongs never make a right.

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THE PRESIDENT'S ACCEPTANCE.

Whether it was good political strategy for Mr. Roosevelt to roar so gently through all the 3,000 words of his speech of acceptance it is too soon to say. Undoubtedly his humdrum prosings will be as balm to many Republicans. Their President had got upon their nerves so many times, and they had so dreaded fresh imprudences from him, that his dull commonplaces, his strict adherence to all the party conventionalities, his sudden fondness for peace, and his meek stand-pattisms, will be immensely reassuring. On the other hand, the picturesque Roosevelt, the man of dash and vigor, whose motto was always audacity, who "took things into his own hands" and "did things" while all the world wondered, has been too long before us and has won too many admirers not to cause a start of surprise and disappointment when he comes forward ruefully to say, "I am not what you think me."

For our own part, however, we are free to say that we like him better in this mild-mannered guise. We do not sigh once over the missing heroics and strenuosities. His speech is, indeed, tame to the point of flatness. It is ludicrously at odds with the conception of the flaming martial hero that ex-Gov. Black presented to the Chicago Convention. No war or battle's sound is heard in all the President's utterance. He fairly "ingeminates peace" like another Falkland, and rejoices in the fact that "there is not a cloud on the horizon." Not a word is spoken of "policing" neighboring republics; Mr. Roosevelt's rash threats of intervening in other countries whenever he does not like their style of government are not renewed. Are we to class these omissions among those "unsound opinions" which, the President alleges in the case of the Democrats, "for the moment they think it inexpedient to assert"? Time alone can tell; but, for the present, at any rate, it is most grateful to make the acquaintance of a subdued and sweetly submissive Rough Rider.

This "second Roosevelt manner," as the critics may yet come to call it, is nowhere more pleasing than in the President's references to the Philippines. There is not a particle of the old nonsense about the flag's "staying put." Mr. Roosevelt is far more ready to give heed to the imposing petition of the college professors and the clergymen than were his platform-makers. To be sure, he sticks in the bark, along with Secretary Taft, about the mortal peril of promising "independence"; but he does promise "self-government," which means the same thing in the case of the Filipinos, and he distinctly contemplates a gradual withdrawal of American control. This will give new hope to the advocates of Philippine independence, as they see even Republicans compelled to follow a growing public opinion on this subject.

Mr. Roosevelt's remarks about the money question read as if they had been written before Judge Parker's telegram, and reluctantly revised, He practically admits that the issue is dead for all purposes except that of making faces about it. One of his grimaces, however, is rather hard upon Mr. Root. "We are for the gold standard," exclaims the President, "not because of shifting conditions in the production of gold." Then what about the triumphant statistics of an increased gold production which Mr. Root flourished in the face of the convention at Chicago? However, Mr. Roosevelt contradicts himself as readily as he does a friend. Gliding deftly over the postal frauds, he commits himself to a statement which is best characterized by putting it in parallel columns with what the President himself said last December:

From the Speech of Acceptance.	From the Message to Congress.
"Never has the administration of the Government been on a cleaner and higher level; never has the public work of the nation been done more honestly and efficiently."	"While there may have been as much official corruption in former years, there has been more developed and brought to light in the immediate past than in the preceding century of our country's history."

Mr. Roosevelt's utterances on the tariff show him to be immune from all possible thought-contagion, on that subject at least. In his speech of acceptance as well as in his message of December, 1901, he assumes the identity of high wages and a high labor cost of production. Our standard of living, says Mr. Roosevelt in his late speech, cannot remain high "unless we have a protective tariff which shall always keep as a minimum a rate of duty sufficient to cover the difference between the labor cost here and abroad." But now Mr. Chamberlain's Commission, which has been investigating the condition of the British iron and steel industry, reports that "not only are the hours of labor shorter in the United Kingdom than with our competitors, and wages higher (except in the case of the United States); but that the cost of labor per ton in existing conditions is on the whole greater." What can Mr. Roosevelt and the Republican press say to this? Even granting that a tariff ought to be based on the excess in labor cost here over labor cost abroad our tariff on iron and steel would have to be less than nothing. Are they willing to abide by their own principle in this matter, or will they eat their own words? When will they be able to see that a man at two dollars a day who mows an acre is cheaper than a man at a dollar a day who mows a quarter of an acre? The argument for protection based on the higher level of wages in this country is little but an ignorant complaint of the exceptional bounty of nature, and a purblind denial of the exceptional efficiency of the American laborer.

"Wages are higher than ever before," the President proceeds. That will go right home to the 30,000 operatives in Fall River whose wages are cut 12½ per cent. on the heels of a previous cut of 10 per cent. So it will to workmen in all parts of the land who know, if the President does not, that their pay is less, their employment more uncertain, and their living expenses higher. In view of the reality known of all men, it is particularly absurd for Mr. Roosevelt to explain that the tariff is an infallible device to keep up American wages. In all this part of his speech, he is, in fact, still in the beggarly elements of protection. The fallacy that wages determine labor cost has been punctured a thousand times—by the reports of United States consuls, for example. The President's contention is one that is never used by serious students of economics. It is clap-trap to catch votes, and cannot even do that when the most ignorant voter knows that, in fact, the tariff has not prevented a reduction in his wages. And Mr. Roosevelt is more alliterative than sound when he attempts to distinguish between tariff "readjustment" (the Republican plan, and, therefore, wise), and "repeal" (the Democratic way, and, *ipso facto*, wicked). Why, did not President Roosevelt himself, in the first ardor of his tariff speeches in 1902, distinctly advocate the "repeal" of tariff duties that shelter monopolies? The fact that he has been frightened out of that position—at least, till the campaign is over—is no reason why he should rail at those who still maintain it.

But it is, after all, the total impression made by his speech which is the main thing. It is a chastened, a timid, a hedging Roosevelt which it presents to the country. McKinley himself could not have sidled away more carefully from dangerous issues — negro disfranchisement, for example—or taken refuge more gracefully in unmeaning platitudes about capital and labor. The question is, can this last? If the campaign lags, will not those favorite old properties, the spurs and sabre and slouch hat, be brought again upon the stage? All will depend, we suspect, upon the popular reception of the actor in his new rôle. But for to-day, at any rate, the temporarily sane and safe Roosevelt stands as the leading trophy, thus far, of a sane and safe Democracy.

ROOSEVELT TO DONNELLY.

The following letter is one which President Roosevelt *might* have written, with advantage to himself and his country:

"To Michael Donnelly, President of the Amalgamated Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen.

"Sir: You state that the strike in the packing industry is now 'up to me.' And you add that 'one word' from me would settle the strike in favor of organized

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labor. I see in this a combined threat and challenge under which no one but a weakling would be silent. I propose, therefore, to give you a word, but only to tell you and men of your mind some wholesome truth, since I feel that, if I were to hold my peace in the presence of such extraordinary demands as you make, the very stones would cry out.

"I first have to say to you that I resent from the bottom of my heart your attempt to drag this strike into politics. Your implication that I would do for you in a Presidential year what I would not do at another time is an insult. If I cannot be elected without getting on my knees to labor unions, then, in the spirit of my distinguished opponent, let the election go. Nothing does more to degrade our political life than such efforts to put pressure upon a candidate, in the hope that, to win a few votes, he will lose his self-respect. That is dearer to an honest man than a thousand Presidencies, and I tell you frankly that you only hurt your cause with me when you intimate that the electoral vote of Illinois may be hanging in the scales of the beef strike.

"Furthermore, I must enlighten you about the nature and objects of government in this country. You seem to imagine that the President of the United States is to be run to with every trouble that seriously affects a locality, especially if a labor union is in any way involved. Let me inform you that you are grossly mistaken. Things would have reached a lamentable pass if that were true. Americans are to stand on their own feet. In town, county, or State they are to rule themselves. The idea of hurrying to Washington with every disturbance with which the police power of the States is alone competent, and by itself is fully able, to deal, is abhorrent. It would make of local government a nonentity and of the President an earthly Providence. I have all that I can do in attending to the legitimate business of my office, and I shall not budge from my position of non-intervention unless you imitate the strikers in your city in 1894, and interfere with the mails or with interstate commerce. In that case, and failing adequate action by the State authorities, I stand ready to do as my illustrious predecessor, Grover Cleveland, did, and assert the power of this nation against all local nullifiers.

"I must also improve the occasion to address to you a word on your policy of disorder and violence. Last summer I felt impelled to write a letter calling upon my countrymen to put down lynching by a due enforcement of the law. But labor-union terrorism and crime are as great a national menace as lynching. To club, torture, and kill a man because he is a 'scab' is as monstrous as to burn a criminal to death because he is black. The rioting, the intimidation, the assaults, and murder of which labor unionists are guilty violate not only the American spirit of fair play, but the principles of American government. If a strike cannot succeed without crimes of violence, then it ought to fail. And let me tell you that the first duty of the officers of the law—whether they be sheriffs, constables, municipal police, mayors, governors, or the President himself—is to maintain public order, and to put down the mob with an iron hand. Any sworn officer who falters in this obligation is a craven, and any citizen who deprecates vigorous dealing with rioters, or who asserts that magistrates will suffer at the polls for keeping the peace, is at heart an anarchist. I include in that description Senator Hopkins of Illinois, who says that the Republican party will not suffer, because Democrats are the ones who are enforcing the law. All honor to such Democratic officials, say I, and woe be to my own party if it ever becomes dastardly enough to dally with armed disturbers of the public peace.

"My final advice to you, Mr. Donnelly, is to quit when you have had enough. It is evident that your strike was ill-advised. This is proved by the fact that your employers are able to get plenty of men to take your places. The right of the latter to work unmolested is one that must be upheld unless this Government is to sink into the pit. Accordingly, I counsel you to make the most advantageous terms you can. You have staked all and lost; now make the best of it like a man. In any case, be assured that I shall keep my hands off, unless your folly brings you into collision with the laws of the United States, when my hand will go *on* in a way you will not like. As far as I am concerned, you have barked up the wrong tree. I am to be neither wheedled nor frightened into meddling with what is none of my business. This is a government of laws, not of dictators or of busybodies, or even of anxious candidates. The law must take its course, and it will run over you if you get in the way.

"Sincerely yours,
"THEODORE ROOSEVELT."

SECRETARY SHAW AND HIS DEFICIT.

Our amusing Secretary of the Treasury has "gaed o'er the border" once more, and this time with a vengeance. The restraint with which he said nothing in seven different ways in his speech which was to have opened the campaign, has evidently proved galling, and his intelligence is at large again. What used to be called "the Cleveland deficit" is unmistakably reappearing, though, strangely enough, it is not mentioned among the Republican "Signs of Prosperity." The excess of expenditures over receipts for the month of July is about $18,000,000. In part, this is to be attributed to the large quarterly disbursements which fall in July, but even with this allowance the current deficit is nearly three times as great as the corresponding figures in July of last year.

When this fact was brought to Secretary Shaw's attention, he broke into an economico-financial dithyramb which simply leaves Hamilton and Gallatin in another class. He smote the rock of financial offence, and folly gushed forth. He touched the dead corpse of a defunct theory of foreign trade, and it stood upon its feet. "Two years ago," said he, "I called attention . . . to the dependence of the present revenue laws upon a very high standard of business if they were to yield enough to meet the large expenditures of the Government." But surely this savors of the superfluous. Can aught but a very "high standard of business" be possible under a Republican Administration buttressed by the Dingley tariff? This expression of doubt is bad tactics; but worse remains behind. The finance minister went on to say that if the conditions of business should approximate those of 1894 again, "we should have a deficit of $90,000,000, as against the $70,000,000 actually reached in that year. In other words, the Wilson-Gorman act was a better revenue-getter (though not so good a protective measure) than the present law."

By the "stand-patters" this must be reckoned simple blasphemy; but to the dispassionate student of finance it is the most delicious nonsense, inasmuch as the $70,000,000 deficit in 1894 did not arise under the Wilson-Gorman act at all, but under the sacred McKinley act. In other words, the head of the Treasury is as ignorant as an oyster-opener of the revenue laws in force in his own department within a decade. He adds the admission that the Dingley act is potentially a bigger deficit-creator than the McKinley bill, and acknowledges that the accursed Wilson law was a better measure for bad financial weather than either of the inspired enactments of his own party.

As if this were not enough to discredit himself and his party, the Secretary went on to acknowledge that there would be a large deficit during the current fiscal year. In his last annual report he had set the year's deficit at $23,000,000, but fortune, kinder than his figures, has given him his estimated deficit in the first three weeks of the present fiscal year. He refuses, however, to revise his estimate of the year's deficit until he knows what the business conditions of the coming twelve months will be; but he commented on the impending shortage, remarking with what is termed "the characteristic twinkle in his eye," "This is a good argument for tariff revision and lower duties, isn't it?"

Evidently, the Secretary is under the pathetic delusion that the infallible way to augment the total yield of the customs

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is to raise the rate of duty. But even the depth of intellectual density must realize that if all duties were at once made so high as to be absolutely prohibitory, there would be just as little revenue as under absolutely free trade. It would, of course, be folly to quote to the gentleman from Iowa who runs the Treasury, the words of such a theorist as Adam Smith, who over a century ago shrewdly observed: "High taxes, sometimes by diminishing the consumption of the taxed commodities, and sometimes by encouraging smuggling, frequently afford a smaller revenue to Government than what might be drawn from more moderate taxes"; and who added sagely, "When the diminution of revenue is the effect of the dimunition of consumption, there can be but one remedy, and that is the lowering of the tax." This very sensible view of the matter suggested itself, as it happened, to a newspaper man to whom the Secretary was delivering his orphic utterances on finance. When his attention was called to the fact that sometimes lower rates increase the revenue by opening the way for large importations, Mr. Shaw replied: "In the present condition of labor this would be a good time to advocate a policy of buying more from abroad, wouldn't it?" But what does Mr. Secretary mean by "the present condition of labor" when the President tells us in his speech of acceptance that "wages were never higher"? The second reply to Mr. Shaw is, that "a policy of buying more from abroad" involves as its normal effect that "abroad," in consequence of our greater buying from them, must buy more from us. International trade, Mr. Shaw, "is an organized and elaborate system of barter." But Wisdom herself would despair of ever cudgelling that simple proposition into the cranium of a man capable of Secretary Shaw's latest economic utterance.

LORD CURZON ON INDIA.

Lord Curzon's Guildhall speech, on receiving the freedom of the City of London, abounded in that apocalyptic sentiment on which convinced Imperialism thrives. The Viceroy of India dwelt upon the magnitude of his great task with a warmth and reverence which must win sympathy, if not assent. His picture of the marvel of British rule in India was impressive:

> "Where else in the world, my lords and gentlemen, has a race gone forth and subdued, not a country nor a kingdom, but a continent, and that continent not peopled by savage tribes, but by races with traditions and a civilization older than our own; with a history not inferior to ours in dignity or romance, subduing them not to the law of the sword, but to the rule of justice, bringing peace and order and good government to nearly one-fifth of the entire human race, and ruling them with so mild a restraint that the rulers are the merest handful among the ruled, a tiny speck of white foam upon the dark and thunderous ocean? I hope I am no rhapsodist, but I will say that I would sooner be a citizen of the country that has wrought this deed than I would be of the country that defeated the Armada or produced Hampden or Pitt."

Here is sharply raised the issue that Mr. Chamberlain perceived on the "illimitable veldt"; the romance of conquest and dominion oversea is deliberately weighed against those "parochial" services which make a nation great at home. The dream of empire, in thinkers of Lord Curzon's type, far transcends those humdrum processes of education and reform which establish a nation in righteousness.

The eloquence of such a plea should blind no one to the fact that it rests upon a manner of thought and feeling equally vague. Before an Indian viceroy, says Lord Curzon, is always "the haunting question, like a riddle of the Sphinx, What is in the heart of all those sombre millions, whither are we leading them, what is it all to come to, where the goal?" Crucial questions these, none of which Lord Curzon answers, none of which, apparently, he feels it necessary to answer. Instead, he falls back upon swelling generalities: British rule "must depend on the eternal moralities of justice and righteousness." This he assures you is no mere phrase of the conventicle, since, "unless we can persuade the millions of India that we will give to them absolute justice as between man and man, equality before the law, freedom from tyranny and injustice and oppression, then your Empire will not touch their hearts and will fade away." And again he cries, "Depend on it, you will never rule the East except from the heart, and the moment imagination has gone out of your Asiatic policy your Empire will dwindle and decay." We have intentionally selected the nobler portions of Lord Curzon's oration, not to cavil at its tremendous assumptions—in the tribune no man is bound to syllogisms—but to point out its curious mixture of intense feeling and loose thinking. Britain is bidden to rule by the heart and the imagination a sombre race, to search whose heart is admittedly to face a veritable riddle of the Sphinx. Righteousness and justice for India are assumed to inhere in the present well-paid and complacent bureaucracy. In this willingness to father the present order upon the God of things as they are, and then to monopolize that Deity for the Empire, Lord Curzon betrays the inordinate Hebraism which Matthew Arnold detected and ridiculed in his fellow-countrymen.

Arnold saw in such an attitude a lack of culture. To culture, however, Imperialists rarely lay claim; they profess to scorn it as an anæmic virtue. To historic intuitions they do lay claim, for they undertake by a kind of divine warrant to shape the course of history. It is surprising, then, to note in Lord Curzon's oration a complete lack of the historical sense. One would imagine that yesterday England found India, as Pharaoh's daughter the waif Moses, whereas England is facing no sudden and unexpected duty that may be discharged by a single gush of compassion. England has not been driven into India by an inexorable decree from above. England went to India to make money. For two centuries and more she misruled that prostrate people through a territorial trading company, whose malfeasances she has now for nearly a half-century been slowly repairing. Righteousness and justice were neither at the beginning of the enterprise nor in much of its conduct; they are afterthoughts, most imperfectly realized in practice to-day. They certainly have little to do with Lord Curzon's Tibetan war, fought on an empty point of honor, nor yet with the policy that would forcibly "introduce some measure of enlightenment into that miserable, monk-ridden country."

No one would wish to see the Viceroy of India openly doubtful of the great Imperial experiment committed to his charge. Every one will commend his desire to do justice, and only captious persons will dwell too much upon his conception of destiny, though, like Scapin's, it would at a pinch excuse "all the imaginable crimes." Every serious Englishman will, however, see that the real and palpable problems of Empire are not made more easy by such mysticism. On the contrary, this sacerdotal ideal of colonial rule tends to obscure the desires and needs of the governed people and to emphasize merely the infallibility of the pontiff. Lord Curzon has in many respects been a wise and practical administrator; but it is a curious juxtaposition that associates immutable principles of justice to India with the convenience to England of the Imperial military establishment supported by peasant rupees. This point made up almost the burden of Lord Curzon's argument. Nothing, surely, could be more characteristic of British Imperialism than such rolling together (always in the name of a pious regard for the welfare of the mild Hindu) of the will of God and a cheap auxiliary for contingent military requirements.

THE MANTCHURIAN CAMPAIGN.

The baffling movements of the three Japanese armies for the past three months will best be understood by regarding Ta-Che-Kiao as the Japanese objective, and their plan as a converging advance upon that important junction, the terminus of the Peking-Niu-Chwang railway. Its possession means the control of the Gulf of Liao-tung and of an important source of Russian supplies. To the control of the head of this Gulf the siege of Port Arthur has been subordinated, and all the obscurer operations in the mountains may be interpreted as attempts to deceive the Rus-

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sians as to the real objective. Thus the persistent small demonstrations on the northern roads to Mukden have been calculated to draw off the Russians from the real line of attack near Niu-Chwang. Similarly, Oku's swift acceptance of Stakelberg's challenge, and subsequent hot pursuit, were to draw Kuropatkin down towards Kaiping until the eastern passes should be taken, while Kuroki's recent concentration near Liaoyang has prevented the assembling of a sufficient force on the Russian right at Ta-Che-Kiao. Accordingly, the capture of that town and the occupation of Niu-Chwang mark the successful termination of the first campaign. A great victory by Kuropatkin might yet undo the patient work of three months; his defeat would, barring some unexpected change in the naval situation, secure to the Japanese the fruits of victory.

Looking at the Japanese operations chronologically, one is struck by the sharp contrast between the conservatism of the plan of campaign and the brilliancy of its execution. Kuroki, who might have landed in Mantchuria, made his cautious way through Korea in March and April. Strong political considerations dictated the occupation of Korea; any loss of time from a military point of view could be made up later. As it turned out, the single battle of Kiu-lien-cheng (May 1) drove Zassalitch's division more than a hundred miles back—to Hai-Cheng—and left Kuroki the next day in control of the fine strategic centre Feng-Wang-Cheng, from which trails radiate to Mukden, Liaoyang, Hai-Cheng, Ta-Che-Kiao, and Kaiping; in short, to all the important Russian positions on the railway. At this point Kuroki must have felt the temptation to push his advantage beyond the point of safety. Kuropatkin at this time could have put in the field a bare 40,000 men, and good judges believe that he was ready for a retreat towards Harbin. To have accepted the chance, however, would have been to stake the fortune of the war on a single engagement in unfamiliar country far from supplies. So Kuroki remained about six weeks at Feng-Wang-Cheng, perfecting the discipline of his army, and merely probing the Russian outposts along the western roads.

Meanwhile the landing of two more armies offered the Russians an embarrassment of objectives. Less than a week (May 5) after the battle of the Yalu, Oku's army began to debark at Pitsewo, to fight on the 26th the successful battle of Nanshan. From the second week in May, Nodzu's army was gradually landed at Takushan, between Oku and Kuroki. By June 1, Kuropatkin, then concentrated about Liaoyang, had to consider three armies—Kuroki on the left, ninety miles away at Feng-Wang-Cheng; Nodzu in the centre, one hundred and sixty miles distant, near Takushan; and Oku, on the right, a little farther off, near Pitsewo. If left to himself he would have stood on his defence. It was the interference of St. Petersburg that gave the opportunity for the crucial operation of the campaign, the inclusion of Oku's army, at the south, in the concerted movement towards Niu-Chwang. If the landing in force at Pitsewo and the sensational battle of Nanshan had been merely a lure, it could not have worked better. Kuropatkin, against his better judgment, sent Stakelberg down the peninsula, and thus sacrificed his great advantage of the defensive. From that time he has been constantly outmanœvred.

On June 8 Nodzu's army occupied Siuyen. This brought the Japanese to within forty miles of their objective, Ta-Che-Kiao. Stakelberg, who might long have delayed the capture of this important mountain centre, was hurrying to his punishment at Wafanku-Telissu. After those disastrous three days, June 13-15, Kuropatkin had no choice but to dispatch his main force south to cover Stakelberg's retreat. The concentration between Kaiping and Ta-Che-Kiao undoubtedly drew heavily upon the garrisons of the passes, which the Russians still held, for on June 26, by prearrangement, Nodzu forced Fenshui and Ta Passes on the routes respectively from Siuyen to Ta-Che-Kiao and Hai-Cheng, while seventy miles north Kuroki drove the Russians out of the famous Motien Pass, which commands the eastern road to Liaoyang. Since that time Oku and Nodzu have been in a position to act jointly, while the fear of Kuroki at Motien Pass has drawn Kuropatkin far north of the Japanese line of advance. So Kaiping, a fortnight ago, fell to Oku almost without a battle, and Ta-Che-Kiao on Monday week was defended only by some twenty thousand men. The objective of a three months' campaign was won cheaply at eight hundred casualties.

To appreciate fairly the extent of the Japanese success, it should be recalled, first, that they have in the four main engagements contrived to throw an army against a greatly inferior body; second, that while they have not met Kuropatkin nor his main force, they have defeated every one of his four generals: Zassalitch, of the Second Army Corps, at Kiu-lien-cheng; Stossel, of the Third, at Nanshan; Stakelberg, of the First, at Wafanku, and, finally, Zarubaieff, of the Fourth, with his newly arrived Siberian regiments, only the other day at Ta-Che-Kiao. As for the Japanese, Oku's army has borne the brunt of the fighting: Nanshan, Wafanku, Ta-Che-Kiao, constitute its honorable record. Kuroki at Motien Pass has fought only one battle of any account since crossing the Yalu. Nodzu's Takushan army has had only two or three small mountain engagements; upon it will naturally fall the brunt of any further advance northwards. If an unbroken series of successes, due almost in equal measure to the gallantry of the troops and the strategy of the commanders, means anything to an army, the Japanese ought to face their new problem of attacking larger forces on level ground with hopefulness.

FRANCE AND THE VATICAN.

The remaining diplomatic representative of France at the Vatican is to be withdrawn, the Papal Nuncio at Paris will receive his passports; relations maintained throughout a century are sharply broken. The famous treaty negotiated by Napoleon with his captive Pope still stands—the Concordat, indeed, can be denounced only with the assent of Parliament—but no organization now exists to make the treaty effective. It would be more sensible to abrogate it once for all than to let it lapse through disuse. For this famous pact is in the nature of a gentlemen's agreement; it presupposes good will and good faith on both sides. To-day, the situation seems hopeless because of mutual suspicion. M. Combes will not believe that the Pope's attempt to discipline two French bishops is devoid of political animus; the Pope will not concede that M. Combes's pretension to supervise all Papal correspondence with the French Church is based on an honest construction of the Concordat.

When Napoleon had agreed, in return for the right to nominate Bishops and to regulate the relations of Church and State in France, to subsidize the Roman Catholic Establishment, he desired to define still further the rights of the Nation. Accordingly, he added to the Concordat by way of interpretation the Organic Articles, an *ex-parte* document which the Church has never formally adopted. Of these Organic Articles the first stipulates that all Papal correspondence with the French Church shall pass through the Government and shall require its authorization; while the second denies to the Papal Nuncio or other personal representative of the Papacy the right, without similar authorization, "to exercise, on French soil or otherwise, any function relative to the affairs of the Gallican Church." In other words, Napoleon clearly intended to be the exclusive medium of communication between the French Church and its head; in the smallest as in the greatest matters the State was to be informed and consulted.

Such being M. Combes's view of the rights of the State, no wonder that he feels that he has caught the Pope in flagrant dereliction. The Bishop of Laval has received from the Papal Secretary of State and from Cardinal Vannutelli letters summoning him to meet charges at Rome. The Bishop of Dijon has received directly an order from the Papal Nuncio at Paris, and later one

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from the Papal Secretary, bidding him come to Rome or suspend the exercise of the episcopal function. These direct communications from the Curia and this intervention of the Nuncio constitute glaring contraventions of the Organic Articles. Premier Combes cannot yield a hair's breadth at this point without throwing the articles overboard.

Pius X. will undoubtedly take his stand on the Concordat, and deny the validity of the Organic Articles. That position is strong morally, but in the present bitterness there seems no hope of any compromise. It is clear also that the Pope desires to distinguish between his political jurisdiction in France, which he admits is subject to confirmation by the State, and his spiritual jurisdiction, which he maintains is free and absolute. It seems absurd to him that, when investigating the orthodoxy or the personal morality of a Bishop, he should first consult the Minister of Cults. Such matters lie between the individual believer and the Vicegerent of Christ. This position, too, would be strong if it were possible infallibly to discriminate spiritual from political cases. As a matter of fact, it is almost impossible. Trustworthy people are convinced that the Bishops of Dijon and Laval are being investigated on trumped-up political charges, solely because the Jesuit reactionaries wish to overthrow two loyal clerics; others equally trustworthy are equally certain that Church politics has nothing to do with what are essentially personal scandals. Clearly, the case may, as a matter of fact, be both spiritual and political. We cannot see how the French Government, which pays the stipends of the clergy, could afford to let anybody but itself be the judge. That would mean that all Papal communications must, if only *pro forma*, pass through the hands of the Government. Thus the stipulations of the Organic Articles, oppressive as they appear to be to the Pope, seem to be wholly in accordance with the common sense of the situation.

Before accusing Pius X. and his Secretary of mere blundering or meddling, we should inquire if they are not deliberately embarking on a new policy which entails the abrogation of the Concordat. Possibly the Curia prefers the undisguised hostility of the State to the bondage of its subsidies. The Pope has seen the religious schools of France swept away ruthlessly; he may well have feared that the party now in control would next smite the Church itself. If his foresight be correct, he is perhaps wise to declare frank war, on the theory that in negotiations with an unscrupulous enemy he is sure to be worsted. This view of the matter fits in with the constantly provocative attitude of the Vatican since the accession of Pius X.; it also squares with the simple and forceful character of the Supreme Pontiff. To one who desires uniformity and lacks the historic sense, the anomalous independent character of the Gallican Church is necessarily distasteful. He possibly hopes to see a free church flourish in France as it has flourished in America. Here we fear that his hopes deceive him. It will be no easy matter merely to man the French parish churches without the State stipends. The abolishing of the Concordat must upset both the organization of the Church and the habits of society throughout the provinces. The temporizing policy of Leo XIII. and Rampolla was less logical and austere than the pragmatism of Pius X. and Merry del Val; we believe, however, that the opportunism of the "political Pope" was more truly humane and religious, in subordinating the pretensions of the Curia to the needs of the faithful in France.

WALTER REED.

Within the century ending with 1898 it is believed that there were more than 80,000 deaths from yellow fever in this country. Nine-tenths of these were of children or of persons in the vigor of life with a long expectation of intellectual and physical productiveness. So much vital capital was destroyed. The 80,000 deaths represent at least 300,000 cases, which imply an annual average of 3,000 separate attacks, one year with another. Besides the computable loss in time and money and energy consumed in attention to the fatal cases, and to those which ended in recovery, there is an expenditure of emotion which cannot be measured, and this not merely on the part of those whose families are involved, but of those who fear such invasion. The barbarous shot-gun quarantine is but a crude manifestation of one form of this distressing anxiety.

It is, however, well known that, so far as this country and the West Indies are concerned, the occasion for all this waste of material and vital wealth and strain of anxious sympathy has recently been swept away by the demonstration that the disease is distinctly preventable. Where yellow fever prevails elsewhere and the precautions can be applied, similar results will follow. Hereafter, yellow fever in the United States will be prima-facie evidence of some one charged with its preclusion having been derelict, or of its introduction through a byway insusceptible of being guarded. In either case the further spread may be promptly stopped. This revolution has been effected by the courage, the intelligence, and the devotion of a medical officer of the army and the loyal self-denial of his colleagues and subordinates.

In 1901 there was no hope that yellow fever might be abolished, but study of its pathology was in progress, as it had been for years. In that interest Major Walter Reed, of the Medical Department of the army, was sent by competent authority to Havana to investigate, in what might be called the storm-centre of the disease, the nature of certain microscopical forms. One inquirer believed that he had discovered in a hitherto unknown micro-organism a cause of the fever. Another, that a form designated as *bacillus x* had a clearer claim to that disastrous distinction. Reed was perfectly non-immune, and bore no direct military relation to the troops then in Cuba. The detail carried him from laboratory work in Washington to a yellow fever focus. He was sent there because it was such a focus. He was sent there because amid the fatal cases of this disease, whose unidentified virus sooner or later infected every stranger, he would have the best opportunity to observe possible agencies, and it was important that specimens from the fatal cases should be under the object-glass of the microscope with as little delay as possible. He might have suggested that another important study would suffer by this interruption; that some one already on the ground could conduct it; that it was not of immediate practical importance to determine whether the *bacillus x* or some other infinitesimal was characteristic of the disease, as long as treatment could not be expected to be modified by the determination; and particularly that it would be extra-hazardous to him, non-exempt. He made no comment. As a scientist he noted his instructions, as a soldier he carried out his orders. He realized his risk, and neither foolishly underestimated it nor rashly defied the Fates. Nor did he suggest that possibly an immune expert could conduct the inquiry as efficiently, with a better chance of returning. He faced the situation fearlessly, and by careful examination satisfied himself and the scientific world that, whatever part the *bacillus x* might play, the discovery of Sanarelli was mythical and his hypothesis untenable. This service closely resembled forlorn-hope duty, without the excitement of battle and with no consciousness of great consequences impending.

That question settled, a new and independent one arose, and in the situation which then presented itself at Havana Major Reed found the opportunity which, developed, has given fame to him and security to nations. It had been generally believed that because yellow fever and filth are usually side by side, therefore they have a necessary connection, making this fever essentially and technically a filth disease. But Havana had been cleansed, and Santiago. The American occupation had not simply swept and garnished the two cities; it had removed their waste and had washed and disinfected them, so that they were clean according to a high American standard. Theoretically there could be no yellow fever. But yellow fever was there, and to a serious degree, so that, his original problem disposed of, Major Reed found before his face this grave and eminently practical question: How does yellow fever spread? That was no part of the mission with which he had been charged, except as incidentally it might have appeared that one of the presumed pathological organisms under investigation would infect the healthy, either by ingestion as in typhoid fever, or by inhalation as in tuberculosis. Under the new conditions of freedom from dirt and decay the old factors were cancelled, and the American commission, Agramonte, Carroll, Lazear, and Reed, with Reed at its head, having received authority from the Government, began under his guidance a careful investigation of this subject, vastly more important than the inquiry just completed. This is not the place to rehearse the method, but it was absolutely demonstrated, positively and negatively, that hel-

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ther the patient, his personal effects, nor any of his evacuations directly convey the disease. The sick man or anything he had soiled is not a contaminating agent. Therefore, so far as their mere presence goes, the sick, their bedding, and their garments are harmless.

Nevertheless, the whole history of yellow fever shows it to be a communicable disease, and that an epidemic might follow the introduction of a single case. Not very long before, Manson had proved that the so-called malarial fevers were translated to the human subject by the mosquito acting as an intermediary host, a suggestion of which connection had indeed been published long ago by King of Washington. Finlay of Havana had suspected, twenty years before the Spanish war, that the same insect in some manner carried the agent of infection from one yellow-fever case to another. But this had not been demonstrated, nor was it seriously considered by those living among the actual conditions. Nevertheless, Finlay deserves great credit for acuteness in framing even a rudimentary hypothesis so opposed to the conceptions of the time. Having elaborately and irrefutably proved the innocuousness of the patient and his belongings, Reed turned his attention to the mosquito, and clearly demonstrated that at a certain stage of the disease one variety could withdraw, from the blood of the sick, material which, after a period of development within its own body, and not before, would give rise, again after a fixed interval, to yellow fever in the non-immune whom it may have bitten.

This was no mere happy guess, no leap in the dark with an uncertain landing-place. Major Reed's analytical mind, sound judgment, and long experience in biological investigation qualified him for the serious and successful consideration of the circumstances. He conducted a carefully arranged set of observations, "controlled" by another set, which finally authorized the announcement that the female *Stegomyia fasciata*, a domestic mosquito, propagated the disease; and it led to the formulation of rules by which an epidemic may be suppressed and an exposed community be kept inviolate. What the methods are is beside our immediate object, but intelligent military authority immediately put them in operation in Havana, with the well-known result that there has been no more yellow fever in a community that had been infected for a hundred and fifty years. Our foreign quarantine has been reduced to a short but rigid inspection for mosquitoes, disregard of what has hitherto been believed to be dangerous fomites, and detention of persons only so long as to cover a period of five days from possible infection. Cargoes and passengers are practically relieved from the costly and vexatious but necessary exactions of the former régime.

Walter Reed died from appendicitis in November, 1902, having received no other reward than the consciousness that he had conferred an inestimable benefit upon mankind. The Walter Reed Memorial Association has been incorporated in Washington, with a responsible board of trustees, to commemorate in some suitable way at the national capital the great services which he rendered to the world, and the admirable character which qualified him therefor. This project should especially appeal to the commercial public and to those interested in the happiness and advancement of the race. In the great cities the immediate benefit of his work is most clearly reaped, but the whole country is the gainer by his brilliant and perilous labors. And the world is in his debt. He has benefited humanity and has honored America. Philanthropy, commerce, and patriotism should unite to do him honor. Contributions to the memorial fund, for which the sum of $25,000 is set as appropriate, may be sent to the treasurer, Mr. Charles J. Bell, president of the American Security and Trust Company, Washington, D. C.

NEWFOUNDLAND REVISITED.

ST. JOHN'S, July, 1904.

Newfoundland has recently again come prominently before the world as the beneficiary in the treaty between England and France, and to our summer tourists it is becoming more and more popular as a fishing-resort and a place of relief from oppressive heat. Until within the last few years it was unapproachable in its northern isolation, except by a long sea-voyage. But now the Reid Railroad steamer *Bruce* makes tri-weekly trips in six hours between Sydney in Cape Breton and Port au Basque, the most southwesterly point of the island. There this good boat makes connection with Reid's Transinsular Railroad, one of the links in the chain of Reid's railroad and steamboat lines, the most amphibious system of transportation in our hemisphere. This main line runs along the west coast for 150 miles, dropping you at a dozen points where exist the best salmon pools available anywhere to the unprivileged fisherman. It then crosses, on its way to St. John's, the centre of the island, over a low, moss-clad, scantily forested plateau, to the head of Notre Dame Bay, one of those deep fjords into which the whole Atlantic coast of the island is carved, and which Norman Duncan, in one of his graphic tales of the 'Ways of the Sea' and the ways of its primitive toilers, aptly calls the frayed edge of the continent. Over these barrens so few trains pass that they have not frightened away the herds of caribou, which may be seen from the car windows like the buffalo and antelopes in the days of early Western railroading. From the eastern section of the main line some short branches diverge to Placentia, Carbonear, and other places famous in the early history of the island during the period of struggle between England and France for the control of the continent, when the value of Newfoundland and Cape Breton as strategic points was more fully appreciated than it seems to be now. But the 42-inch-gauge railroad, the only one of that gauge in the western hemisphere, is subsidiary to the steamboat lines of the same private company, which connect railroad termini, enter every important port on the south shore that the roads fail to reach, and encircle the northern half of the island, thus serving as the only medium of intercourse with the outside world of numberless fishing hamlets, which eke out a precarious living from the harvest yielded by the ocean. Another line of comfortable steamers runs up the Labrador coast to the village of Nain, whose very name bespeaks its Moravian parentage. There the good brethren are impressing docile Esquimaux more successfully than they did our Indians with the teaching of the Prince of Peace.

So much for the Reid system from a geographical point of view. Its political history is even more interesting. Some fifteen years ago the Government let a contract to an American company to build certain lines of railroad on the east coast. The company failed, leaving a legacy of incompleted road on the hands of the Executive, which, in its innocence, undertook to complete and then operate it. Ere long it discovered its incompetency, and was glad to let another contract to a Mr. Reid, who had won wealth and knowledge as a railroad contractor in this country and in Canada. He fulfilled all his obligations, to the great embarrassment of the Government, which had not yet learned how to run its own railroad, and therefore made a very liberal contract with Mr. Reid to run it for them. After being liberally paid for building it, he did not object to being liberally paid in money and land for operating it. Under these circumstances, the Parliamentary Opposition did not lack arguments for attacking the railroad policy of the Government. When, therefore, the Opposition came into power it decided to rid the country of the onus of ownership, seeing that it involved the expense of a subsidy, by accepting from Mr. Reid a million dollars in cash for what had cost it, as it stands on the Provincial accounts, nearly $11,000,000. In consideration of the relief which this purchase by Mr. Reid gave them, they increased his land grant, which already consisted of alternate blocks of ten square miles for every ten-mile section of road.

Mr. Reid then owned the road out and out, but with certain restrictions as to transfer of ownership. A hue and cry was immediately raised by the party out of power that this enormous land grant and the control of all transportation meant that Mr. Reid owned the island and all that it contained. It was a telling electioneering theme, and carried the old party back into power. Negotiations were then reopened with Mr. Reid to satisfy the electorate, and he was nothing loth to get back his million, and to sell the additional land at a price substantially higher than the other public lands were bringing, and to accept something like $120,000 a year, and whatever he could make out of the traffic by running the railroad, now again nominally owned by the Government. Mr. Reid, however, retains the sole ownership of his several lines of steamers. By every successive move made by the opposite political parties, Mr. Reid gained financially, the politicians gained politically, while the island lost pecuniarily. Each party has recovered power more than once through the railroad, and Mr. Reid would certainly not be averse to continue to buy and sell the same piece of property at an advance on each transfer, if it should so please political managers and their constituents, who are good fishermen, brave fellows, but very simple voters. Meanwhile, however, Mr. Reid of the Reid Newfoundland Company runs the boats and the railroads to the satisfaction of the travelling public, the through train being well equipped with sleepers and dining-cars, both well served, and he is using every means and effort in developing the scanty resources of the island.

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Not only the railroad problem, but the management of the fisheries and of every department of Government, affords an interesting commentary on the working of representative institutions when conducted in small, ignorant communities, where no strong, intelligent, united public opinion can be brought to bear on the political leaders. Political partisanship seems even to follow denominational lines of cleavage. The present premier is a Methodist, and he not only carries his own church with him, but is said to have formed an alliance with the Catholics as against the Presbyterians and others. And education is still given in denominational schools, greatly to the economy of the treasury, but as greatly to the detriment of the people, a large proportion of whom cannot even read or write.

But if these fishing-folk—for but a very small proportion is engaged in any other calling—are poor scholars, they are sturdy, courageous men. A training-ship for the royal navy is anchored in St. John's harbor, and last winter some 450 men, who had received some preliminary training on the ship, joined the fleet on its southern cruise. Not a man on the fleet could handle an oar like them. They won every race without exception. These men of the naval reserve return to their fishing-boats in summer with their winter's earnings in their pockets, after having had a glimpse of the world and acquired habits of punctuality and tidiness which will not make them worse fishermen, though it is to be feared their morals will not be improved.

The railroad has made little impression on the industrial life of the people. Some copper continues to be made at Tilt Cove; Trinity Bay ships some iron pyrites, and Belle Island supplies the Sydney furnaces, when their men are not on strike, with iron ore. Coal exists, but has not yet been profitably worked, and we hear of gold and argentiferous lead and chrome ores; but none of them have attracted capital. Most of the island is covered by a forest of small coniferous trees, too small to supply much dimension timber, but well suited for paper-pulp making; and, as nearly one-twentieth of the island must be covered by rivers and lakes, which afford waterways for the cheap transportation of the lumber to central pulp works on the railroad, this industry might, to the saving of our own rapidly vanishing forests, be advantageously transferred to Newfoundland.

Farming on a large scale is unknown. A very small proportion of the area of the island is fertile, and agriculture is not a congenial occupation to seamen. Fishing, like cow-punching, is an occupation conducive to general idleness, though creative of rough and rugged virtues. The man who for short periods is exposed to great hardship, dangers, and intense exertion, considers himself entitled with reason to lounge during the rest of the year. Some of the fishermen have small patches of shallow ground fenced in as gardens or pasture. In the springtime when the caplin are caught in excess of the requirement for bait, they are simply strewn upon the land to decay, defiling the atmosphere with an incredible stench instead of fructifying the soil. Fishing always has been and always will be the occupation of the people. In the old days the English Government discouraged settlement on the island, because permanent residents fished in season and out of season, and used appliances which the transient summer fleet of codfishers did not employ, and thus destroyed the inshore fishing. To-day the fringe of settlements whose total population is not that of a second-class town, besides worrying the Imperial Government about French fishing-rights and other questions, recklessly destroy the source of their own livelihood by using nets of smaller than regulation mesh; and they do so with impunity, for the lawbreakers are so numerous that any Government venturing to enforce the law would offend so many voters that it would be summarily turned out.

But now fishermen of another sort are maintaining the reputation of the island as the best fishing-ground of the world, and the island's treatment of this new horde of summer fishermen is another of the many anomalous idiosyncrasies of this most original of modern communities. Maine, Canada, Norway, Great Britain, lease their lakes and rivers, and derive large revenue from wealthy fishermen. Newfoundland invites every one to come and fish gratuitously, and the invitation is cordially accepted, and her magnificent salmon rivers are being diligently thrashed by guests from Canada, the States, and England. But the guests themselves, especially those who return year after year, are proceeding, by the simplest process conceivable, to neutralize the hospitality of their hosts. They are framing a code of rules which they call the "etiquette of the rivers," and which they expect all new-comers to obey. One of these is that he who first pitches his tent on the bank of a pool should have exclusive right to it as long as he remains. Of course he cannot enforce his assumed rights, but if he can afford to hire guides enough, and make them wade out before dawn and occupy every favorite haunt of the salmon, the unfortunate fellow who comes along to enjoy "free fishing" enjoys simply the moral benefit of keeping, as best he can, his temper under control. The Government may just as well derive some revenue from the sale of fishing-rights, unless it can prevent this preëmption of the rivers by wealthy freebooters. Interference and irritation there must inevitably be, but rules might be made which would minimize the friction, and permit all to enjoy some good fishing; for in the pools, when the water is low, the salmon lie as thick as the boulders, and if they refuse to be beguiled by your fly, the inducement on your part to allow your fly to drop under them and commit the unpardonable sin of jigging is almost irresistible. There are, in fact, some very reputable fishermen who, as they mysteriously always catch twenty-pounders, lay themselves open to the suspicion of not resisting the temptation.

Of course, fishermen's luck and ill-luck follow a guest even to this country, and he is bewildered to know when the fish will rise, for one guide assures him that it will happen when the wind blows from the west, another when it blows from the east, one when the sky is clear, while another assures you that the salmon can then see you, and will not touch your fly unless the sky is overcast. Or the water is too high or too low; it is rising, or it is falling. At last one is forced to admit that some inexplicable, perverse spirit does possess betimes the whole breed. Be it how it may, a few days' salmon-fishing brings out the best traits of some human characters, and certainly the most reprehensible and selfish of others; and confirms the conclusion which a devout preacher, who was also an ardent fisherman, came to when preaching "on the marvellous draught of fishes," that "the ways of fish in the water are as mysterious as the ways of Providence itself." We five, however, had fair luck, considering that the water was low and clear and that the fatal easterly wind was blowing. We caught eighteen fish; but, allowing five casts per minute, it must have required between 4,000 and 5,000 casts to catch each salmon—nearly as many casts as bullets are fired in war to wound a man. Reducing them to horse-power, which is the energy required to raise 33,000 pounds one foot per minute, as we were fishing with both hands in whipping the stream with long sixteen and eighteen-foot rods, weighing, with their heavy reel, three pounds, we must have expended about one and a half horse-power in catching each poor fish. All but enthusiastic fishermen may be forgiven for doubting whether the game is worth the candle.

But the burning question on the island is the French Shore rights. Great Britain, with the concurrence and advice of the Newfoundland Ministry, supposed she had made a satisfactory settlement by conceding to the French certain fishing-rights, giving them a large share of Nigeria, and undertaking to pay for all the buildings owned by French fishermen on the French Shore, provided France would abandon all claims to proprietary rights in that portion of the island. Unfortunately, the Government of the island, in its haste (in advance of the confirmation of the treaty by the Chamber of Deputies) to secure all the political benefit it could from the treaty, issued notices last spring which were understood by the fishermen to mean that the French had abandoned the French Shore, and they might immediately occupy it. This the Newfoundlanders proceeded to do, and are now up in arms because "the British warships," as the Opposition press puts it, "are protecting French interests in British waters against British subjects." Then there is local agitation against a clause forbidding herring fishing after October, which the British legal authorities interpreted as referring only to foreign fishermen, not to Newfoundlanders, who are by the treaty at liberty to make their own regulations. Among others there is great agitation over the right of Frenchmen to catch lobsters; but, seeing that they cannot can them as formerly, on the shore, the right cannot be of great value. The treaty must be confirmed before October 8 to become operative, but there is no reason to suppose that two great Powers which by the same treaty are endeavoring to settle the Egyptian and Morocco complications, as well as the Siamese, the Nigerian, and all other imminent outstanding sources of international irritation, will allow the French Shore question to interfere. One cannot, however, fail to recognize the magnanimity of France in thus yielding, for the sake of peace, her last vestige of sovereignty on the continent which she once had reason to expect she would control. All she now owns is two little islands, St. Pierre and Miquelon,

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at the mouth of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. D.

POPULAR EDUCATION IN ITALY.

FLORENCE, July 12, 1904.

The bill on elementary education, entitled "Provisions for Schools and School Teachers," presented by the Minister of Public Education, Signor Orlando, on the 30th of last January, has, with sundry modifications in committee, been sanctioned by the Chamber of Deputies and by the Senate, and has duly received the royal signature. Insufficient as are the reforms herein proposed, one must admit that, in the present state of indifference of the well-to-do classes towards the education of the masses, the fear of disturbing the barely attained equilibrium of income and expenditure, and the admitted impossibility of increasing taxation, any more radical measure for diminishing illiteracy would have been rejected by a large majority of the Chambers. The Minister was wise, therefore, to cut his coat according to his cloth, even though the garment produced is the scantiest existing in any civilized nation in the Old World or the New. Cavour, to whom old Piedmont chiefly owes its first radical impulse on educational lines; who, as early as 1850, taunted the Chambers with their constant "rhetorical declamation about the supreme necessity of popular instruction, without ever concreting a rational system for effecting it"; to whom we owe the first fundamental law (that of 1859, called the Casati law), said in the last year of his life: "If you want to waste the time of the Chambers, bring in a bill for public elementary instruction." As it was in his day, so it is at the present hour; hence Italy still enjoys the *primato* of illiteracy.

While all other civilized nations consider five years the minimum for enforced attendance at elementary schools, Italy contents herself with three; and as there is no penalty for non-attendance during these years, more than one-third of the children between the ages of six and nine do not attend any school at all. While other States spend from 6 to 11 lire for the instruction of every 100 children, Italy doles out 2 lire and 46 centimes for the same number. While she could find, in 1899, 303 millions for her army, she spent but 45 million for education; of this sum only 3,962,549 lire was spent for primary instruction, the provinces, on their part, spending 372,973 lire, and the communes 64,105,306; total, 68,440,828.

The question whether State or commune should direct and control elementary schools has long been and is still under discussion, but in reality now such discussion is useless. The large communes in Piedmont, Lombardy, and Liguria, which have spent enormously to bring their elementary schools to perfection, would not hear of State interference, while the communes of the middle and southern provinces which do not perform their duty in this respect (often because they have not the means) cannot be placed on a different footing from the flourishing towns and cities of the north. When the first census of Italy (minus only Venice and Rome) was taken, it was shown that more than two-thirds of the population were totally illiterate—actually did not know their letters. But little or nothing was done to wipe out the stain. After 1866, when Prussia's victories and Italy's humiliating defeats were apparent, Pasquale Villari and Aristide Gabelli, devoted educationalists, proclaimed the schoolmaster rather than the needle-gun the chief factor in Prussia's success, showing that in that country, for nearly a century, primary instruction had been made really compulsory and carried to a point which no other European nation had attained. But Italy, after a brief season of rhetorical declamation, left things as they were, and in 1872, two years after Rome was entered, was "shocked" to learn that she had eighteen millions of *analfabeti*, or total illiterates. The numbers were reduced to fifteen millions by deducting the children under six years of age, but even fifteen millions was an alarming figure. In 1876, the old Moderate party, which had held power exclusively for sixteen years, fell, and the Liberals inaugurated their rule with an effort to render gratuitous primary instruction compulsory. But the law of 1877 did little to better, and some things that worsened, the old Casati law of 1859. It abolished religious instruction unless specially demanded by the parents of the children, leaving the communes to decide the question, and, with the passion for decentralization which possessed them, left the communes absolutely free, reduced the primary instruction from four to three years, called it obligatory, but provided no authority and no penalty for rendering it so; gave the communes a free hand in the choice and pay of teachers. The natural result was that, during the next fifteen years, the diminution of illiterates for the whole of Italy amounted to only one per cent. annually in some provinces.

The Socialists, Republicans and Radicals cry with one voice, "Reduce the expenses of the army, and hand over the savings to the Minister of Public Instruction"; but they also agree in admitting that the ministry which should propose such a reduction would be overthrown on the same day, and that an appeal to the country would send up supporters of a grand army and navy in immense majority. Strange it is, but Italy clings to the "idea" of military greatness and glory as did old Rome herself, and, until this dream shall vanish, it is useless to strive against it.

The Minister of Public Instruction could get no assistance from the finance or war departments, though the preface to his bill detailed the state of other nations, proving Italy to be behind the lowest on the list, and referring, as did the commissioners in their report, to the very serious question of emigration (Italy has four millions of her people in foreign lands, and the tide of emigration increases yearly)—"now that the United States and Australia are resolved to exclude all illiterate emigrants." Unable to compel all the communes to open two upper grades (fourth and fifth), the attendance on these grades, where they do exist, is rendered obligatory on all children between nine and twelve. The syndic is bound to publish the list, and the prætor to enforce a fine of from one to ten lire on all parents who do not send their children to school. The communes are permitted to exceed the legal limit of their expenses in order to assist indigent children with "school breakfasts," clothing and books where no charitable institution or association exists for the purpose. This clause will benefit poor children when a majority of the "popular parties" forms the municipality. The fourth article proclaims the principle of mixed schools, to which the clerical factions are utterly hostile. Can anything be more ridiculous? While the two sexes mingle at all the secondary and classical schools and the universities from sixteen years upwards, what evil can result from their mingling between the ages of six and nine or up to twelve years of age? They mingle only too freely in the overcrowded habitations where two and more families are packed into one room, and in the streets where they chiefly congregate. The economy in the small communes and in scantily populated rural districts is obvious: instead of two classes for boys and girls, one suffices with one master or mistress. As the *Critica Sociale* observes, if the Government would offer only two lire for all children who pass the examinations for the upper grades, the communes would be more disposed to open them; but this would involve the immediate expense of a million, which would increase yearly, and hence is not to be thought of.

Important are the articles relating to the evening and Sunday classes to be opened for the instruction of children over twelve years of age who are found to be still illiterate because they have never attended primary schools, or because they have forgotten what they learnt there. The syndic is charged with finding out these; but how much better would the work be done if a commission of citizens would undertake the task! The State promises to open these schools in the communes where illiteracy is most prevalent, and the commissioners have raised the number from 2,500 to 3,500, the teachers to receive 150 lire in addition to their ordinary salary. The illiterates are to be examined at the end of the first year, and, if found wanting, to attend a second; failing to "pass" then, they are to be fined from five to twenty-five lire. While the certificate of attendance and successful examination at the end of the three compulsory years of primary instruction suffices for the right to vote in political and administrative elections (at the age of twenty-one), the license to carry arms will be refused to any one who, in 1905, cannot, in the presence of the prætor, write his name, stating age, occupation, and address. Many have proposed that the possessors of good educational certificates should be exempted from six months of military service, that no illiterate should be exempted from conscription save for physical imperfection; that none should be allowed to undertake contracts for the State; that the parents should be excluded from any public charity, and so on.

The provisions of the meagre bill are approved of by the "reforming Socialists," who regret that Orlando's ideas were thwarted by the categorical refusal of supplies, and pledge themselves to sustain his original proposals at the next elections, which, according to present rumors, will take place next autumn.

On the whole, the fixed salaries for male and female teachers are satisfactory, though many are disappointed that the salaries of women are not equalized with those of men. Possibly the reluctance to do this arises from the fact that women have in a great measure attracted to themselves the larger

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share of the elementary educational department. In the olden days such was not the case; but if you look at the current statistics of normal schools, whence issue the elementary teachers, the attendance of females over males is surprising. As a year's practice in infant schools is now added to the programme, and as in these beneficent and too rare schools only female teachers are employed (about three thousand throughout Italy), this may account in some measure for the figures; but the fact is that, taken at their highest, the salaries are so low—so much lower than the wages of a skilled mechanic—that men do not care to compete for a pittance on which they cannot keep a wife and family in decency, whereas many, nay most, of the female teachers obtain a position in the towns, cities, villages, and rural districts where their families live, or, if married, generally get a position in the place where their husbands live, so that the difference in salary is not so unjust as it seems. Everywhere, we believe, and in Italy assuredly, women are the best instructors of boys as well as of girls.

To normal-school graduates, who can become teachers only at the age of seventeen and eighteen, the present bill accords a minimum of 1,200, a maximum of 1,500 to male teachers in towns and cities, 1,000 to 1,300 to female teachers. For the rural schools, a minimum of 900 and a maximum of 1,000, and about 500 lire to teachers in "unclassified" schools. Be it noted that this is an increase on former stipends, and that the Government is resolved at least to compel the communes to pay the sum monthly at the appointed day. By giving double classes to the same teacher—of course at different times of the day—by evening and Sunday classes, some benefit will accrue to a certain number; but with the income tax and the sums retained for future pensions, the position of teachers in elementary schools is not an enviable one. At the present moment, however, the supply exceeds the demand, all the more so as many women (I speak from personal knowledge) who hold diplomas from universities and the superior institutes, present themselves as candidates for positions in the elementary schools, having no hope to obtain any in the normal and complementary schools for which their diploma capacitates them. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

RICHEPIN AND MANGAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have lately been interested in the resemblance between two rather unusual poems: "Le Bohémien," by Richepin, and "The World's Changes," by James Clarence Mangan. Mangan died in 1849, the year in which Richepin was born, so that if either of the two poets is to be charged with imitation, Mangan could certainly prove an alibi. The resemblance between the poems in their story, expression, and construction is so close that the theory of coincidence seems untenable, but perhaps not too close to be explained by the suggestion, which has been made to me, that both poets took some Oriental poem for a model.

The city, the plain, the sea, and the forest, each has a verse in both poems, and the refrains which follow them have this close resemblance:

Mangan:

"And after a thousand years were o'er
The shadow paused over the place once more."

Richepin:

"Cinq mille ans il s'écoule,
Je suis repassé par là."

Can any of your readers throw some light on this matter? I have the two poems before me in the following publications: 'Les Poètes Français du XIX. Siècle,' edited by C. Fontaine and published by William R. Jenkins, and 'Selected Poems of James Clarence Mangan,' edited by Louise Imogen Guiney and published by Lamson, Wolfe & Co. The editor of Mangan's poems prints "The World's Changes" among Mangan's original poems as distinguished from those adapted or translated from Gaelic or Oriental sources.—Very truly yours, L. C.

Baltimore, July 25, 1904.

JONSON'S "ALCHEMIST."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In connection with Ben Jonson's "Alchemist" analyzed in your last issue (p. 74), it is possibly worth while to mention a play of the same name by the well-known Turkish playwright, Feth 'Ali Akhondzade, published in Tiflis in 1860, reprinted in the *Journal Asiatique* in 1886, and translated in the same year in the Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society. The rôle of Bruno's painter is here taken, however, by a poet—Haji Nuri—who, after unsuccessfully reproving the audience for giving credence to the Alchemist, retires with the Turkish proverb "Dōru söz ajy olur" (A true word is bitter) on his lips.

Yours very respectfully, O. T.

Notes.

Doubleday, Page & Co. announce for autumn publication 'Recollections and Letters of General Lee,' edited by his oldest son, Capt. Robert E. Lee, from his return from the Mexican war to his death; 'A Belle of the Fifties,' being the memoirs of Mrs. Clay of Alabama; 'Confessions of a Club Woman,' by Agnes Surbridge; and Kipling's 'Traffics and Discoveries.'

Harper's fall announcements embrace volumes i.-v. of the coöperative history "The American Nation," edited by Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart in a total of twenty-six volumes; 'Imperator et Rex: William II. of Germany,' by the author of 'The Martyrdom of an Empress'; and 'River-Land,' by Robert W. Chambers.

The Oxford University Press looks to publish next fall two volumes, edited by L. G. Wickham Legg, of documents on the history of the Constituent Assembly (1789-91), drawn mainly from the Paris newspapers of the period, with a selection from the more important decrees of the National Assembly, proceedings of municipal assemblies, etc.

Mr. Thwaites's latest addition to his series of reprints, "Early Western Travels" (Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Co.), is John Bradbury's 'Travels in the Interior of America in the Years 1809, 1810, and 1811' (second London edition, 1819, with a map, on which Missouri Territory stands for everything west of the Mississippi, except Louisiana). One of Bradbury's footnotes contains the dramatic story of John Colter's race for life with the Indians, which used to be current in our school readers. The English botanist met Colter, and also Daniel Boone. His narrative is further remarkable for his graphic description of the great earthquake of 1811, which destroyed New Madrid, for tales of buffalo, and of Indians, whose loose sexual notions in particular are illustrated. Bradbury's style is that of an educated man, and his journal is thoroughly interesting, as well as historically valuable.

Mr. Joseph B. Bishop has revised a trio of articles contributed by him several years ago to the *Century Magazine*, and has made a book of them with the title, 'Our Political Drama: Conventions, Campaigns, and Candidates.' They are purely popular accounts of the way Presidents have been made and candidates disappointed, and quote textually from a variety of sources of uneven authority. Reproduced at this time, they have a certain interest and convenience, and a moral if a machine-ridden constituency had any eyes for morals. Mr. Bishop sets forth Lincoln's efforts on behalf of his first nomination, as any candid historian must. When he says that Lincoln had no Presidential aspirations in 1859, he does not quite convince by citing a letter from Lincoln discouraging his friends from putting him in nomination, on the ground of unfitness. But the move was premature—a year in advance. Lincoln professed the same sense of unfitness to Mr. Villard in their now famous box-car interview in 1858, but he may well have been sounding a newspaper correspondent; and at all events he did not withhold the fact of his wife's domestic nomination of him. The illustrations, chiefly caricatures, are not printed as well as in the magazine. Two series are added—those of *Harper's Weekly* satirizing Lincoln's flight to Washington, and Gillam's presentation in *Puck* of the tattooed Blaine.

The story of Sophonisba, the Carthaginian Queen, seems to have had an unusual attraction for the tragic poets of Europe as soon as her adventures, described by Livy and Appian, were diffused by the revival of learning. The two earliest examples of "regular" modern tragedy, Trissino's in Italy and Mairet's in France, were devoted to this theme, and up to the present day playwrights have found pleasure and dramatic material in the episode of Massinissa and Sophonisba. It is to these reworkings of Carthaginian history that an Italian scholar, writing in French, has devoted the two hundred-odd octavo pages of 'Sophonisbe dans la Tragédie Classique Italienne et Française' (Turin: Paravia). The author, Dr. Carlo Ricci, has traced the story from Polybius to Dalban, almost in our own generation, with considerable care and acuteness. The value of such a comparative study, especially in making clear the differentiæ of racial imagination, would have been enhanced by the inclusion of other besides two Romance literatures. In England, for example, John Marston, Nathaniel Lee, and others have written Sophonisba tragedies. But on the whole the monograph may be commended as an impor-

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tant study of the evolution of a poetic theme.

We would call attention to an interesting note which Mr. Alfred Marks has recently published in the *Athenæum* on the subject of the Popish Plot trials. It is not unknown to careful students that the printed reports have been garbled in the process of revision, or at least that they cannot be accepted as verbally authentic. This imperfection of the record is due less to the carelessness or incompetence of reporters than to malice prepense, and represents an attempt to put the evidence of informers like Oates, Bedloe, Prance, and Dangerfield in the best light. Mr. Marks, by comparing the report of a typical trial as given in Howell with a contemporary pamphlet now in the British Museum, secures a basis for testing the extent of the "revisions" made. The trial in question is not one of the most important which resulted from Oates's alleged disclosures, but Mr. Marks's collation shows clearly that the tangle of the Popish Plot (intricate enough at best) is made even more intricate by a wilful alteration of the reports that pretend to give a faithful account of the trials.

The *Shakespeare-Jahrbuch* volume 40 (Berlin), edited this year with even more than the usual care and thoroughness so as to give a complete and ordered conspectus of all the literature in its field, in pursuance of its current policy furnishes, in addition to other leading articles, a reprint of the pre-Shaksperean satirical morality, "All for Money," competently edited by Ernst Vogel. This curious drama presents (lines 606 ff.) a sort of "disputison" on the comparative advantages of learning and wealth, obviously imitated in form from John Heywood's play of "Love." Marie Gothein writes at length upon the subject of "Women in the English Drama before Shakspere," and Prof. F. W. Moorman makes clear Shakspere's indebtedness, in parts of two or three of his History Plays, to Daniel's 'Civil Wars.' W. Bang makes an ingenious suggestion in regard to the use of the "traverse" in the staging of Shakspere's plays—a suggestion which assumes the recent in-and-out stage theory as proved. Conservative scholars, however, may still be permitted to entertain doubts on that point. American and English students of their own literature can afford to leave Shakspere and Shakspere literature in the hands of the German Shakespeare-Gesellschaft and of the competent editors of its *Jahrbuch;* but it does seem a pity that the vast and increasing literature in the general field cannot be similarly summarized and classified in a yearbook planned and organized upon the same lines, but published in an English-speaking country.

The report of the Geographical Society of Berne for the years 1900-1902 contains six papers, of which the purely scientific are on the distribution of the medium altitudes in Switzerland, with numerous measurements and two charts, by Dr. H. Liez, an anthropo-geographic study of the canton of Graubünden, by Dr. H. Zivier, and an account of the "black waters" of South America, with the theories as to their cause, by Dr. J. Reindl. Of more general interest is the late Dr. E. von Fellenberg's report of his archæological researches in Bosnia-Herzegovina. The "finds" are numerous, and include remains of buildings on piles, pottery, articles fashioned from deer's horns and bones of the Stone Age, and Roman baths, tombs, and roads. Some notes of his explorations in Spitzbergen are given by M. A. Brun, and a tour in Norway is described by M. Albert Gobat. He closes with a fine tribute to the Norwegian woman: "Not only was she one of the most active agents in the strife against alcoholism and the saloon, but for a long time she has given her strength to the work of education. She is upon the school committees; she supplies the deficiency of the school, which, in a country where thousands of children have to go more than three kilometres to recite their lessons, where the snow often cuts off all communication, is not easily accessible. Thus Norway, in spite of so many difficulties, occupies the first rank in Europe for popular instruction."

The *National Geographic Magazine* for July contains a statement of some of the work of the Bureau of Insular Affairs in the Philippines, by its chief, Col. C. R. Edwards, with facts relating to the new monetary system of the islands. In an abstract of a recent report by Prof. A. J. Henry will be found a description, illustrated by photographs, of the principal phenomena of the clouds and the air to be observed in order to forecast the weather. A provisional programme of the Eighth International Geographic Congress, to be convened at Washington on September 7, contains the titles of nearly 200 papers which have been submitted for presentation before the congress. Lord Kelvin will send a paper on oceanographic instruments, and Sir Harry Johnston is to speak on "Colonial Development in British Tropical Africa." Sir W. Willcocks, noted for his irrigation work in Egypt, will read a paper on the "Hydrography and Economics of the Nile Basin." Commander Robert E. Peary is to be president of the congress, and the diplomatic corps at Washington and the presidents of previous congresses, including Sir C. R. Markham and Baron von Richthofen, honorary vice-presidents. Sessions will be held at Philadelphia, New York, Chicago, and at St. Louis in conjunction with the International Congress of Science and Arts. The New York session will be opened by an address on oceanography by Sir John Murray.

The story of the English and Swedish Antarctic expeditions is told in the *Geographical Journal* for July by their leaders, Capt. Scott and Dr. Otto Nordenskiöld. The impression left is of admiration for the men who, in the interest of science, could voluntarily endure hardships and face dangers almost incredibly great. In a striking passage the Swedish explorer describes the meeting, when on a sledge journey, with two of his fellow voyagers, who had started the preceding summer from the ship to join them, but had been overtaken by the winter which they had passed in this awful solitude. The biological and geological results of the English expedition will be organized and published by the British Museum. Major Powell Cotton tells of a journey in Uganda, in which he discovered a small tribe living on a mountain-top in two-storied huts, unmolested by their neighbors on the plains because of their supposed magical powers.

In the Quarterly Statement of the Palestine Exploration Fund for July, Mr. Macalister makes his eighth quarterly report of the excavation of Gezer. This completes the two years for which the firman was originally issued. The Turkish Government has now extended the life of the firman for one year, and the Fund appeals for special subscriptions to enable it to conduct the work on a larger scale. At the present rate it would require ten years to complete the excavations. Mr. Macalister has commenced work on the higher western hill, where he finds thirty-eight feet of débris, as against about twenty-eight elsewhere, and eight overlying strata, as against six at the deepest point on the eastern hill. In Palestine, as in all other places where archæological explorations have been conducted, the result of continued work has been to push back dates. When Lachish (Tel Hesy) and Gath (Tel es-Safi) were excavated, it was suggested that the earliest traces of a pre-Semitic troglodytic occupation might go back to about 1800 B. C. Macalister's earlier work at Gezer pushed back the date of the pre-Semitic occupation to a period before 2000 B. C. His later discoveries seem to show that the earliest city wall, of earth faced with stone, which he ascribes to the pre-Semitic inhabitants, may antedate 3000 B. C. This would in general synchronize with the results obtained by Babylonian exploration as to the date of Semitic occupation of that region. Large numbers of scarabs and other objects from Egypt testify to a close connection of Gezer with Egypt. Among the scarabs noted in this report is one of the great Hyksos King Khyan, one of Thotmes III., and one of Amenhotep III. and his Syrian wife Thii. Most of the Egyptian objects noted in this report belong, according to Petrie, who furnishes a note on the subject, to the Hyksos period, Dynasties XIV. to XVI. The cuneiform tablet discovered in May, and reported in a preliminary letter in the London *Times*, proves to be a fragment of an ordinary Assyrian contract for the sale of house, land, and slaves, dated in the year 649 B. C.—evidence of the Assyrian domination of this region in the reign of Ashurbanipal, and probably of the occupation of Gezer by an Assyrian garrison at that period.

The quarterly *Mittcilungen der Deutschen Orient Gesellschaft* for June contains reports of the German explorations at Babylon and Ashur from February 16 to May 2. From Babylon there is nothing of interest or importance except the discovery, in the hill called Homera, of a theatre of the Seleucidan period, the first thing of the sort heretofore found on Babylonian soil. At Ashur the explorers have found the south wall of the ancient city, and, in and by it, phallus-shaped clay cones containing building inscriptions of various monarchs from Tukulti-Ninib (1300 B. C.) onward. The excavations at this site proved from the first far more successful than the excavations at Babylon in the discovery of inscribed material which has thrown much light on the history of this city and of Assyria. Some of the recently discovered inscriptions show that the previous supposition of scholars that the earliest rulers of Ashur were priest-governors, dependent upon Babylon, is incorrect. These inscriptions designate the same rulers indiscriminately as king or *patesi*, hitherto rendered priest-governor. The two titles belong to the same man, considered according to his pontifical or his secular office, and it would

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appear that from 2000 B. C., and even before, the rulers of Ashur were independent sovereigns. One inscription shows that the famous king Esarhaddon bore also the name Ashur-etil-ilani, and it may be that some documents found at Nippur and elsewhere heretofore ascribed to the reign of the son of Ashurbanipal bearing that name, should have been ascribed to the reign of his father. Among other objects the explorers report the discovery of two interesting alabaster stelæ of the Parthian period, which show the effort on the part of the Parthians to imitate and adapt Assyrian art and also the Assyrian religion. These reports also contain a plan and description of a small two-roomed shrine or temple, almost exactly similar to one found at Nippur by the University of Pennsylvania Expedition to Babylonia. From the University of Chicago expedition at Bismya in Babylonia, Dr. E. J. Banks, field director, reports, in the *Biblical World* for July, the discovery of large numbers of inscribed clay tablets of a date as old as or older than the extremely ancient inscriptions found at Nippur. Inscribed bricks found at a low level identify Bismya as the city of Adab or Ud-nunki, and not Isin, as was conjectured. Most unusual for Babylonia is a temple, also of very early date, constructed, in part at least, of stone, instead of the clay or bricks which have been the universal building materials of that country from the beginning until now.

We believe our readers have heard enough for the present about jū-jutsu, and we must therefore ask Mr. Lafcadio Hearn to excuse us from printing a controversial rejoinder to some remarks we made in our issue of June 2. We extract, however, a bibliographical passage: "A paper prepared by Mr. Jigorō Kano (a member of the Japanese Higher Educational Council, and for many years a very celebrated professor of Jiu-jutsu), with the aid of the Rev. J. Lindsay, appeared in the Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan in July, 1888. It was entitled 'Jiujutsu: The Old Samurai Art of Fighting without Weapons'; and it dealt with the general history of the art both in China and Japan. In 1892, a more elaborate paper, by Mr. T. Shidachi, fully illustrated, and explaining various details of the grips, throws, etc., appeared in the Transactions and Proceedings of the Japan Society (London), entitled 'Jiu-jitsu [*sic*]: Self-Defense by Sleight of Body.' "

—The August *Scribner's*, according to well-established custom, is devoted almost entirely to fiction. The roster of short-story writers for the number fairly bristles with names of distinction, though but two of the stories are calculated to make any lasting impression upon the reader. Mr. Kipling's contribution shows a tender, spiritual element in his make-up which the reader of his most characteristic work might well suppose to be lacking. Perhaps the idea—a blind woman, childless, but with a mother's yearning, attracting to herself in an out-of-the-way mansion the ghosts of dead children—might have been more deftly handled by a pen less accustomed to run in material rather than spiritual lines, but it is a good piece of work, nevertheless. Easily next to Mr. Kipling's story, if not ahead of it in vital interest, is Katharine Holland Brown's story of a broken-down physician going into camp in winter on an island in the bleak Straits of Mackinac, and regaining control of his physical and mental self through the necessity of immediate and skilful professional service to another in distress. In the field of art Ernest Flagg urges a radical improvement in the general plan of New York city, the narrowing of Central Park to a strip one thousand feet in width, with a traffic way of one hundred and sixty feet running through its centre, and the acquisition of the lands necessary to extend this parkway from Christopher Street at one end through to the Harlem River at the other, a distance of ten miles. The expense, he argues, could be met by the sale of the lands thus detached from the present area of Central Park, and the increased taxes upon the enhanced value of the property all along the great traffic way which would thus be created. There need be no fear of the realization of this fancy, so far as Central Park is concerned.

—The continuation of Andrew D. White's reminiscences of his service with the American legation at the court of Russia during the Crimean War is the one piece of serious interest which will attract special attention among the contents of the August *Century*. The blockading fleet at the mouth of the Neva, a visit to the old capital, the death of Nicholas I., and the accession of Alexander II., are among the themes. Both these rulers made a very powerful impression upon Mr. White; the former, with his imposing stature, his dignified and yet kindly bearing, seeming to be "the most majestic being ever created." The son had the towering Romanoff frame, the beauty and the dignity, but less of the majesty and none of the sternness of his father. "Of all the ghastly miscalculations ever made, of all the crimes which have cost the earth most dear, his murder was the worst," throwing Russia back into the most stringent reaction ever known, which has already lasted a half century and bids fair to continue for generations yet to come. The lighter contents of the number are unusually inviting, the descriptive papers including an account of the recently discovered colossal natural bridges of southeastern Utah, by W. W. Dyar; Lombard Villas, by Edith Wharton; and a reception by the Empress Dowager at the Chinese Summer Palace, by Minnie Norton Wood. Readers will await with interest more authoritative and complete measurements of the Utah bridges, but it seems to be proved that they are so gigantic as to dwarf out of all comparison any structure of the kind heretofore known, the largest of the three being high enough to clear the dome of the Capitol at Washington by fifty feet. Mr. Dyar's article is based upon notes by a mining prospector, Horace J. Long, who viewed the bridges in company with a cattleman named Scorup, early in 1903. So far as is known, only three or four white persons have ever visited the locality, which is very difficult of access, both from the roughness of the ground and from the lack of water. A survey of the region should be made under Government auspices.

—Prof. John Bassett Moore's sketch of our early struggles with piracy, and with the British claim to the rights of search and impressment, is followed in the August *Harper's* by an account of the efforts to find relief from more purely commercial restrictions, such as the discriminating duties which were once so common a manifestation of the spirit of national monopoly. Our efforts to secure reciprocal concessions give him the occasion to take a fine shot at the "reciprocity" of the present day, as "a policy recommended by free-traders as an escape from protection, and by protectionists as an escape from free trade, but distrusted by both and supported by neither." Martin Hume brings forth little that is new to his easy task of impeaching Queen Elizabeth's right to be called "good." The reflections from the Editor's Study continue their characteristic note of optimism concerning the literature of the present age. We have greater simplicity than our literary ancestors, crave more the trait of direct appeal, rejecting the unessential. The vesture of our thought may have every fold called for by the involutions of the thought inself, but no ruffles and tucks for mere adornment. Lincoln at Gettysburg, not Everett, is the ideal of the present age.

—The Ruskin-Norton correspondence, in the *Atlantic*, deepens in interest with the passing of the years which it covers, commensurately with the increasing personal intimacy between the two men. The death of Ruskin's mother and his entrance upon the Slade professorship at Oxford are the most important events of the period covered by the letters of the August instalment. George W. Alger contributes a timely paper on unpunished commercial crime, comparing in a very suggestive way our severe attitude towards crimes of violence against individuals with our easy tolerance of the wrongs perpetrated against large numbers by the slippery methods known to modern commerce and finance. David Starr Jordan and Vernon Lyman Kellogg are the joint writers of an article on Tutuila, our inheritance from the Samoan entanglement. Credit is given to our authorities there for the beginning of an effort to stamp out the mosquito which has been discovered to be the disseminating agent of the scourge of elephantiasis. More than one-third of the native population are said to be afflicted, and no remedy has thus far been discovered. On the other hand, the insistence of the missionary on clothing as a *sine qua non* of Christianity, irrespective of other conditions, has brought upon the natives a second scourge in the form of pneumonia. The rain upon the shining oiled back and shoulders of the half-naked native fell harmlessly, but the cheap shirt or jacket "clings wet and clammy to the skin, the quick chill strikes through the blood, and the end comes with appalling swiftness and certainty." The clothing demanded by the missionaries is flatly pronounced injurious both to health and to morals, and well calculated to enable the converts "to test quickly the power of their new religion."

—Mr. Craigie's second instalment of R in the Oxford English Dictionary (H. Frowde) carries on the letter from Reactively to Ree. The prefix re- naturally dominates the situation, and introduces much old matter in the root word; but much new, also, as in the series beginning with Recrudescency, for which there is no parallel under C. This word is cited from 1651, along with Recrudescence (1721), Recrudescent (1727), Recrudesce (1884). So Recurrency (1611) antedates Recurrence (1646), and Redundancy

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(1623) Redundance (1638). The distinction of Recollected and Re(-)collected might well have been illustrated from a classic passage in Crabbe: "Smile at the recollected games. . . . And then the recollected soul repairs Her slumbering hope, and heeds her own affairs." Our parliamentary mode of gaining the floor by catching the speaker's eye is set down under Recognize, after Mr. Bryce; but the corresponding meaning of Recognition is not allowed under that word, as, "He failed to obtain recognition." The use of Recognize (in the sense 'to perceive clearly, realize') with a clause for its direct object—"that," for "the fact that"—is not illustrated; but in this country at least it is common. For example, at page 395 of the first volume of Mr. Frederic Bancroft's Life of Seward (1900) we find: "The anti-slavery men of New England did not recognize that there were different parts to be played." Recondite is here stressed on the first syllable, and pronounced with long *i*. Bailey and Sheridan stressed it on the final syllable, Johnson on the penult, all with long *i*; some recent dictionaries indicate clipped *e* for the first syllable and either long or short *i*, stressing on the penult. This is surely to go as you please.

—Reason is one of Mr. Craigie's major rubrics. "Hit standeth with reason" is met with in 1528—"to good reason" in 1632. Very full, and full of interest, is the treatment of Red. It can, we think, seldom occur to the general that the proper name Read(e), Reed, Reid is a color name. Our American red cent is said to have been "formerly" made of copper, but the process still goes on. The correctness of the epithet as applied to our Indians (Red man, Redskin) "has been denied by some writers"; but only by a narrow definition of Red. "The precise shades of color to which the name Red is applied," says Mr. Craigie, "vary from bright scarlet or crimson to yellow or brown." The use of Realize in the sense of "to conceive or think of as real" finds contemporary English and American exemplification in John Newton and Abigail Adams (1775)—"realize what we suffer" wrote the lady; but it was "frequently condemned" as American "by English writers about the middle of the nineteenth century." Record, "the leading facts in the life or career of a person, especially of a public man," was long a stumblingblock to our British cousins, but is "now in common English use." Greeley is quoted for it in 1856. "I reckon," used parenthetically or finally, was "formerly in English literary use; still common in English dialects, and current in the Southern States of America in place of the Northern 'I guess.'" Rebeldom is borrowed from the gentle but intensely loyal Asa Gray. Under Rebellion we should have liked to find quoted, if only for the regimen, which is matched in Shakspere, "Rebellion to tyrants is obedience to God"—most unfashionable doctrine in our Imperialistic time. Finally, let us direct attention to the multifarious significations of Rector as an officer, here set down in a manner characteristic of 'A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles,' and of no other.

—All subjects nowadays tend to grow so bulky that a busy man finds it impossible to keep up his interest in them without the aid of a periodical summary which will keep him up to date. And now that the publications of the Society for Psychical Research extend over a couple of yards of book shelf, there is need for popular compilations which will bring out the salient points from this mass of material. Accordingly, M. Sage's study of the strange case of 'Mrs. Piper and the Society for Psychical Research,' which has been translated by Miss Novalie Robertson, officially prefaced by Sir Oliver Lodge, the Principal of Birmingham University, and for some years the President of the Society, and published by the Scott-Thaw Company, should prove decidedly serviceable. It is a skilful, lucid, and readable condensation of the detailed reports of Dr. Richard Hodgson and Professors Hyslop and James; and though the serious student will still have to go to the original records, the ordinary reader will get a very fair notion of the evidence from this little book. We have noted only one inaccuracy in it, which represents "George Pelham," Mrs. Piper's noted "communicator," as having been killed by a fall *from his horse*. In his interpretation M. Sage abstains from excessive theorizing, but seems to incline, like most of those who have gone into the matter thoroughly, to the spiritist view. At the same time he realizes that far more investigation is needed, and that this costs money, ingeniously suggesting (p. 186) that "if a thousandth part of the sum devoted in a year to the art of killing were devoted to the solution of the problem of immortality," the question could be settled in ten years. This seems sanguine, even though a deduction of a tenth of 1 per cent. from the sums annually squandered on militarism would mount up to anything between two and three million dollars. Still, the advocates of peace might easily adopt less expeditious and efficacious means of convincing mankind of its present folly than inquiries which might end by discrediting the noble art of killing by discovering that, after all, enemies could not be annihilated in such fashion.

—Like an orchard, the Asiatic Society of Japan has an occasional "lean" year, and the past year has been such. Its Volume XXXI., with but sixty-eight pages of text, is the thinnest yet issued, but Dr. E. Baelz's paper on "A Visit to Tonkin," where, in December, 1902, he attended the Congress of Orientalists held at Hanoi, the capital of French Indo-China, is rich in matter, for Dr. Baelz, so worthily decorated by the Emperor of Japan, is one of the leading authorities of the world on Far Eastern anthropology. He shows what the French have done for the making of settlements, and that, while from the point of view of hygiene and general modern smartness they have succeeded handsomely, yet commercially these colonies do not pay, for the French merchant does not travel from home. Tonkin lies outside of the great routes of travel, not one of the great steamer lines of the Far East touching there. Although the distinguished Orientalists of France had in Paris formed the committee of initiative of the Congress, not one of them put in an appearance at Hanoi. Tokio sent more numerous representatives than any other place, the four delegates having each an important and carefully prepared paper. Dr. Baelz believes that the general characteristics of the yellow race are so pronounced that there is no decisive difference between the Japanese, Chinese, and Koreans on the one side, and the so-called Malay races on the other. As matter of fact, neither he nor his Japanese fellow-travellers could distinguish Tonkinese dressed in European style from Japanese. In one case, concerning which Dr. Baelz was in doubt, the three Japanese delegates felt certain the man was a Japanese, but he turned out to be a pure Tonkinese. Dr. Baelz notes that from Borneo to Saghalien the island races, except the Japanese, are given to tattooing their cuticle. While praising the French Government, he sees too much officialdom everywhere and too little private enterprise. Furthermore, the general spirit of the French press in Tonkin itself is too much that of the proverbial emigrant who was "agin' the Government." Nevertheless, Tonkin, being so rich and fertile, ought to have a brilliant future. Mr. Kawaguchi tells of his experience in Lhassa. He entered the forbidden city of the Lhama in the garb of a Tibetan, and lived there two years as a Chinese physician. He describes the Lhama, of whom he had audience, as a man of twenty-six. He prophesies that England, if she only pursues the right method, must inevitably become the protector of Tibet. The new president of the Asiatic Society, Professor A. Lloyd, presents a critical chapter on Indian history, fixing upon the year 481 B. C. as the exact date of Buddha's death.

WAR AND NEUTRALITY IN THE FAR EAST.

War and Neutrality in the Far East. By T. J. Lawrence. The Macmillan Co. 1904.

Mr. Lawrence writes with clearness and a mastery of the principles of international law. His only blemish is a style occasionally a little too vivid and rhetorical to suit the gravity of the subject. The effort to fix the reader's attention drives him into the use of metaphors and similes which may be picturesque, but are certainly not juridical. To say of the "leasing" of Port Arthur to Russia without prejudice to China's "sovereignty" that the language employed disguises "the reality of territorial transfer" is true enough; but to liken it to "the jam which renders palatable the child's powder, or the courteous formula which conceals the social rebuff," really obscures the true point. The fact is, that juristic ideas and conceptions cannot be popularized by such means.

His present volume is a very good popular account of the leading international questions suggested by the outbreak of the Eastern war, and also gives an intelligible statement of the causes which have led to th quarrel. The book foreshadows the trouble which has arisen since its publication over the right of search. Of course, the right of search for contraband, and the right to condemn ships for carrying contraband, in rare cases, exists to-day in as full force as ever; but with every advance in civilization and the peaceful arts and intercommunication, the extreme exercise of these belligerent rights is becoming more and more impossible. The Suez Canal is neutralized—that is, its waters cannot be used for any warlike purpose; but the Gulf of Suez, which is merely a natural prolongation of the artificial waterway, can be so used. The result is, that the fleet of a belligerent

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can lie in wait in the Gulf, and overhaul the entire neutral commerce of Europe as it issues from the canal. This involves the stoppage and search of mails, and a general paralysis and dislocation of commerce appalling to contemplate. Mr. Lawrence thinks that by neutralizing the Gulf the difficulty would be got over, as, "once out in the wider expanse of the Red Sea, a trading vessel could take her chance of search and seizure under the ordinary rules of maritime warfare." But is this so clear? Cannot an active belligerent so patrol the Red Sea as to make it practically unnavigable by neutral merchants except by its permission? The situation is one which, during the present war, can be made tolerable only by much forbearance and concession, and, looking to the future, the neutralization of the Gulf would probably be merely a palliative.

What is the true solution of the difficulty? It does not lie in the exemption from seizure on the high seas of private property, for this measure (always favored by our Government, and by treaty with Italy adopted into practice) contemplates as a permanent exception the right of search for and seizure of contraband. Yet it may be doubted if the right to seize enemy property at sea and destroy enemy commerce is not a far more valuable right than that of marine search for contraband. The latter is a right which has had little or no effect on the issue of any modern war, but the exercise of which falls with ever-increasing weight upon neutral commerce; without its abrogation, it is difficult to see how the constantly recurring turmoil over its exercise with every recurrence of war is to be avoided. Possibly the present war may bring it home to both England and Germany that the right of belligerents to arrest neutral commerce on the high seas "costs more than it comes to."

To put the matter in a different way, is it not at least worth discussing whether the interests of the modern world do not require the abandonment of the right of search for contraband? Is not this a more immediately feasible and important reform than the abolition of the right of capture of enemy ships and property? Suppose it abandoned in the present war, would either belligerent be a sufferer? The right of blockade, and confiscation for violation of it, would still exist—this is necessary, so long as war is necessary; so would the right to destroy enemy commerce. The only privilege which either Japan or Russia would lose would be that of throwing the whole commercial world into a turmoil, breaking up its postal service, and doing irreparable injury to thousands of innocent merchants and travellers, in order, perhaps, to seize a few packages of gunpowder or sticks of dynamite or cases of cartridges, so trifling in quantity as to have no possible effect on the result of the war. If the right of search were effectively exercised, *e. g.*, at the outlet of the Suez Canal, it would drive neutrals into becoming parties to the war, for no powerful neutral nation will submit to *Trent* affairs or *Malacca* affairs every day in the week, nor to its mails being habitually stopped, nor to its "liners" being carried into prize courts. Yet of the existence of the right there is no question.

Mr. Lawrence's observations on the subject of wireless telegraphy are very much to the point. The pretension that correspondents sending wireless dispatches containing information obtained by cruising on the high seas can be treated as "spies" is, of course, baseless; they are not within the lines; they are not gathering information for the benefit of the enemy, and they are not carrying on their operations secretly or in disguise, or on false pretences. But he suggests the case of neutral territory being used by a belligerent for wireless stations by permission of the neutral, which would apparently be as distinct a violation of neutral duty as the use of a port as a base of naval operations, or a line of railway for transportation of troops.

To the question of coal, Mr. Lawrence gives much consideration. He is the supporter of a theory that the use of neutral ports by war vessels for the purpose of obtaining a supply of coal "to get to the next port" opens the door to a great abuse. Under cover of it, a belligerent which has few ports may send a fleet round the world to attack its enemy, getting its motive power from neutrals on the way. There is no doubt that neutrals *may* close their ports to belligerents; and Sweden and Norway, we believe, have done so in the present war. Why should not all neutral ports be closed except to ships in distress? Mr. Lawrence thinks this question entirely distinct from the other, how far coal is contraband; and so it is. Coaling a belligerent ship is a different operation from sending a cargo of coal to a belligerent country for the peaceful use of the inhabitants. One answer to the question asked is, as he perceives, that the adoption of his rule would greatly redound to the advantage of England, a country having an abundance of ports of its own, and be very inconvenient to a country like Russia.

But, after going over the various questions interestingly discussed in this volume, the reader sees in the end that the one which overshadows all the rest is the irrepressible conflict between the right of neutrals to carry on their commerce, notwithstanding the existence of a war, and the right of both belligerents to harry and interrupt this commerce in the search for contraband. It is a curious fact that England's interests have been for three generations nearly continuously neutral, while it was in great measure through English adjudications during the Napoleonic wars that the right of search was established on its present foundations. One consequence of this English origin of the rules is, that English writers still discuss the matter as if the relation of England to it had not entirely changed. It is of the rights of neutrals, commercial nations, that England is the great modern champion, and, as every one sees in the present war, she must uphold them. The right of search is nowadays the great anti-English weapon, and so it will continue to be just as long as England remains a great commercial nation—no matter how large her navy, nor how "imperially" her statesmen may learn to think. To make the right of search of any actual use to England, that country must become involved in a war of such proportions that the mere contemplation of it appals the world—a war, too, which would probably transfer her commercial supremacy to more prudent rivals. No matter how the present disputes growing out of the seizures in Eastern waters may be arranged, this right of search must become a greater and greater menace to the repose of the world, and a more and more intolerable international nuisance.

THE SOUTH BEFORE THE WAR.

A Journey in the Seaboard Slave States in the Years 1853-4. With Remarks on their Economy. By Frederick Law Olmsted. [Originally issued in 1856.]. With a Biographical Sketch by Frederick Law Olmsted, jr., and with an Introduction by William P. Trent. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1904.

Of the various monuments to the senior Olmsted erected by his own modest self, the three books of ante-bellum Southern travel and observation, of which the one here reprinted was the first in order of publication, have the special immortality which belongs to the printed book. A statue to the pulse of our Sanitary Commission machine, or to the creative genius of our public parks, would do less to perpetuate Mr. Olmsted's renown than the journals of his tour through the section about to stake everything in arms for the perpetuity of what Professor Trent calls "the plague of slavery." These journals were fortified by unimpeachable Southern evidence of "the blight [again to cite Professor Trent] slavery was casting over the immense region stretching from beyond the Potomac to the Rio Grande." The later volumes grew polemic in response to criticisms which, without success, sought to discredit the earlier—"We must, unless we are wedded to partisanship," says our Southern introducer, "accept, however reluctantly, his [Olmsted's] general picture of Southern conditions." This controversial matter might seem omissible in a reprint, and if the new edition proceed further the question of omitting may arise; yet it would be a pity to have the shortened work handed out over the counter of public libraries, even in more elegant form, rather than the original weapon in the great struggle between the two civilizations.

The calling in of Professor Trent as a sort of sponsor seems calculated to propitiate Southern readers and bookbuyers; and he must surely have had them in mind in intitimating that Mr. Olmsted was no abolitionist. Everybody at the North knows that the abolitionists desired peaceful emancipation by the masters themselves, as of course Mr. Olmsted did likewise, whether from a humane or an economic point of view. John Brown, not a technical "abolitionist" any more than Mr. Olmsted, would have welcomed the same consummation as a substitute for Harper's Ferry. Until the Southern mind can digest this simple proposition, it will to no purpose be invited to review these faithful Southern panoramas, so graphic, so moderate, so just, so benevolent to all classes in the South. But, in fact, Professor Trent falls short of inviting it; nor does he hint at the profitableness of comparing the South today with that of fifty years ago—how much it has changed, how much remained the same.

We propose, therefore, by a handful of extracts, to make good that omission,

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for the sake both of those who knew slavery and of the generation, North as well as South, that, like Professor Trent (born in the second year of the civil war), knew it not. We believe the extracts can be left to speak for themselves. Not a few of those for whom we cull them will probably wonder why Olmsted thought it worth while to record, and we to copy now. Still, we will

"help them try
Familiar things to view with a peeled eye."

"While calling on a gentleman occupying an honorable position at Richmond, I noticed upon his table a copy of Professor Johnson's Agricultural Tour in the United States. Referring to a paragraph in it, where some statistics of the value of the slaves raised and annually exported from Virginia were given, I asked if he knew how these had been obtained, and whether they were reliable. 'No,' he replied; 'I don't know anything about it; but if they are anything unfavorable to the institution of slavery, you may be sure they are false.' This is but an illustration, in extreme, of the manner in which I find a desire to obtain more correct but *definite* information, on the subject of slavery, is usually met by gentlemen otherwise of enlarged mind and generous qualities" (I., 61).

"Mr. W. also said that he cultivated only the coarser and lower-priced sorts of tobacco, because the finer sorts required more painstaking and discretion than it was possible to make a large gang of negroes use. 'You can make a nigger work,' he said, *'but you cannot make him think'* " (I., 101).

"What would Frederick Douglass [or Booker Washington] have been had he failed to escape from that service which Bishop Meade dares to say is the service of God; had his spirit been broken by that man who, Bishop Meade would have taught him, was God's chosen overseer of his body? What has he become since he dared to commit the sacrilege of coming out of bondage? All the statesmanship and kind mastership of the South has done less, in fifty years, to elevate and dignify the African race than he in ten" (I., 148).

"Among the police reports of the [Washington] City newspapers, there was lately (April, 1855) an account of the apprehension of twenty-four 'genteel colored men' (so they were described), who had been found by a watchman assembling privately in the evening, and been lodged in the watch-house. The object of their meeting appears to have been purely benevolent, and, when they were examined before a magistrate in the morning, no evidence was offered, nor does there appear to have been any suspicion, that they had any criminal purpose. On searching their persons, there were found a Bible, a volume of *Seneca's Morals; Life in Earnest;* the printed Constitution of a Society the object of which was said to be *'to relieve the sick and bury the dead';* and a subscription paper *to purchase the freedom of Eliza Howard,* a young woman whom her owner was ready to sell at $650. . . . One of the prisoners, a slave named Joseph Jones, he ordered to be flogged; four others, called in the papers free men, and named John E. Bennett, Charles Taylor, George Lee, and Aquila Barton, were sent to the Workhouse, and the remainder, on paying costs of court, and fines, amounting in the aggregate to one hundred and eleven dollars, were permitted to range loose again" (I., 16).

"It was a large log-cabin, of two rooms, with beds in each room, and with an apartment overhead, to which access was had by a ladder. Among the inmates were two women; one of them sat at the chimney-corner, smoking a pipe and rocking a cradle; the other sat directly before the fire, and full ten feet distant. She was apparently young, but her face was as dry and impassive as a dead man's. She was doing nothing, and said but little; but, once in about a minute, would suddenly throw up her chin, and spit with perfect precision across the ten-foot range into the hottest embers of the fire. The furniture of the house was more scanty and rude than I ever saw before in any house, with women living in it, in the United States. Yet the people were not so poor but that they had a negro woman cutting and bringing wood for their fire" (I., 368).

"A planter told me that any white girl who could be hired to work for wages would certainly be a girl of easy virtue; and he would not believe that such was not the case with all our female domestics at the North. The Northern gentleman who related to me the facts repeated on the last page, told me he was convinced that real chastity among the young women of the non-slaveholding class in South Carolina was as rare as the want of it among farmers' daughters at the North. . . . I am not unaware that it is often asserted, as an advantage of slavery (in the elaborate defence of the institution by Chancellor Harper, for instance), that the ease with which the passions of men of the superior caste are gratified by the loose morality, or inability to resist, of female slaves, is a security of the chastity of the white women. I can only explain this, consistently with my impression of the actual state of things, by supposing that these writers ignore entirely, as it is a constant custom for Southern writers to do, the condition of the poorer class of the white population" (II., 145).

"A fine-looking, well-dressed, and well-behaved colored young man sat, together with a white man, on a seat in the cars. I suppose the white man was his master, but he was much the less like a gentleman of the two. The railroad company advertise to take colored people only in second-class trains; but servants seem to go with their masters everywhere. Once, to-day, seeing a lady entering the car at a way-station, with a family behind her, and that she was looking about to find a place where they could be seated together, I rose and offered her my seat, which had several vacancies around it. She accepted it without thanking me, and immediately installed in it a stout negro woman, took the adjoining seat herself, and seated the rest of her party before her. It consisted of a white girl, probably her daughter, and a bright and very pretty mulatto girl. They all talked and laughed together, and the girls munched confectionery out of the same paper, with a familiarity and closeness of intimacy that would have been noticed with astonishment, if not with manifest displeasure, in almost any chance company at the North. When the negro is definitely a slave, it would seem that the alleged natural antipathy of the white race to associate with him is lost" (I., 19).

"A friend of mine once said to a Georgian: 'I confess, whenever I am reminded that your power in our Congress, by reason of the hundred slaves you own, counts as sixty-one to my one, because I happen to live at the North and choose to invest the result of my labor in railroads instead of niggers, I have a very strong indisposition to submit to it.' 'I declare,' answered the Georgian, 'I should think you would; I never thought of it in that light before; it's wrong, and you ought not to submit to it—and, if I were you, I would not' " (II., 170).

PIANOFORTE TONE-PRODUCTION.

The Art of Touch. By Tobias Matthay. Longmans, Green & Co.

"Up to now," we are informed by the author of this elaborate treatise, who is a professor at the Royal Academy of Music in London, "owing to the prevailing ignorance of the whole subject, it has been only the few gifted ones who have arrived at beauty and variety of tone" in pianoforte playing; consequently, the art of touch has been regarded as a special "gift" of favored individuals. In Professor Matthay's opinion, it is no more a gift than is the art of articulate speech itself, and "can be acquired by every person of average intelligence." If this be true, it is the most important news communicated to the musical world in many years, even if we do not go so far as the author, who defines the art of touch as "command over the means of expression." His aim is to place the problem on an entirely new and scientific footing. The old method of pianoforte education consisted in choosing exercises and pieces and setting the pupil to perform them; the failures resulting from his helpless flounderings being "corrected" by scolding, bullying, or encouraging him to try again. The author's plan consists in analyzing the subject to be taught, analyzing also the doings of successful artists, and thence deducing the laws governing successful playing; then directly communicating such laws of procedure to the pupil, instead of leaving him to discover them for himself. He has exemplified this plan in the present volume, which is to be followed by similar ones on Practice, Performance, and Teaching.

His aim is best made clear by comparing organ playing with pianoforte playing. The reason why, among the many semi-automatic musical instruments in the market, those of the organ class are more satisfactory than those involving the use of a pianoforte, is that in an organ the power is supplied by the bellows, and the depression of the key is always a purely mechanical act—like opening a valve or tap; whereas at the pianoforte the sound is the direct outcome of the performer's own physical energy, delivered to the key during descent. The author thinks there are no fewer than forty-two distinct kinds of key attack in the case of the pianoforte, whence we get a chameleon-like variety of tone-colors. At the one extreme we have the brilliant but short tone; at the other the singing or sympathetic tone, of good carrying power. The first has its uses, but the second is what makes the best impression, and what so many pianists lack. The main object of Professor Matthay's book is to show how to acquire it. His thesis is that all differences in tone-result depend on the speed attained during the short transit of the key from its surface level to its full depression, and on the manner in which the ultimate degree of speed is attained: if the total energy is applied suddenly we have the brilliant tone; if gradually, we get the rich, singing tone. The cause of this difference is that too sudden application of energy makes a string vibrate in segments, thus sounding the higher, harsh overtones, whereas gradual attack of the string results in whole-length vibration, which gives a rich tone of good carrying quality.

It seems at first thought almost incredible that we should be able to grade the motion of a key (as demanded for a rich, sympathetic tone) during the minute interval of time expended during key descent; but, as the author remarks, many of the muscular acts of our every-day existence are found, on analysis, to be equally minutely graded. The actions of baseball, cricket, tennis, and billiard players afford analogies. Or, take this:

"If we desire to give a person seated in a swing a good 'shove-off,' it is useless to endeavor to do so by means of a sudden jerk or knock. . . . The only (and familiar) way to secure an effective result is to apply force gradually: by allowing our hand gently to come into contact with the

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person—without concussion therefore—and realizing the degree of the resistance to be overcome, we increase the energy of the push given, as the speed is felt to increase by virtue of it."

The author is equally illuminative when he makes fun of the pupils who, after having learned that they must "aim" the propulsion of the key during its short descent, follow the example of novices with a gun who, after aiming carefully, close their eyes at the moment of pulling the trigger. Unfortunately these illuminating sentences are rare in Professor Matthay's book. His treatise, indeed, would be a clumsy specimen of literary composition even for a German professor. His best and most instructive remarks are apt to be in the footnotes or appendices, and of perspective he has no more idea than a Chinaman. He frankly concedes that there is much tautology and repetition in his pages, "and no doubt many other literary sins," and he excuses himself on the ground that he wanted to produce a useful rather than an ornamental work. But the utility of his book is precisely what he has destroyed by his atrocious method of composition and his illogical sequence of ideas. On reading him one cannot but recall Goethe's

"Mir wird von alle dem so dumm
Als ging' mir ein Mühlrad im Kopf herum."

Nor is this confusion much improved by the amazing number of analytical chapter introductions, preambles, summaries, recapitulations, and re-recapitulations. It is doubtful if many, even among the most serious teachers and pupils, will have the courage to wade through Matthay's 328 pages; and this is to be regretted, for even if one may not accept all his views, it must be conceded that he has written a book which stimulates thought; and, notwithstanding its forbidding style, pianists cannot be too strongly advised to study it as a guide to the art of tone-coloring. By directly acquiring a tone-palette (or touch-palette) they may thus, as the author justly claims, save years of time, which would otherwise be wasted in futile experiments and in forming bad habits.

Professor Matthay never tires of condemning the habit of key-striking, or hitting, and he devotes a special appendix to it. He has much to say about the way the tone quality is influenced by the attitude the pianist adopts with his fingers and upper arms—the clinging, or flat-finger attitude, which makes for beauty of tone, and the thrusting, or bent-finger attitude, which results in brilliancy. He doubtless goes too far in asserting that "not even in fullest *forte* is there any real occasion to make the finger tip impinge upon the key with more force than could be borne with impunity by one of those glittering balls of thinnest glass so much in evidence at Christmas." Indeed, he rides his hobby rather hard at times, as on page 27, where he makes expression practically synonymous with tone-shading. He incidentally admits that hardness of hammer and the make of the instrument have much to do with the quality of tone; but he does not seem to realize—and this is by far the greatest blemish of his book—the very important part the sustaining pedal plays in the production of a beautiful tone. We feel inclined to maintain that the feet have even more to do with the attainment of a rich tone than the fingers and arms. But, while failing to emphasize this point—which deserved a special chapter—the author makes partial amends by his tirade against those pianoforte manufacturers who, for the sake of convenience and cheapness, omit the mechanism for playing on one string only *(una corde)*, and by his violent condemnation of that "execrable contrivance," the strip of felt shoved between the hammers and the strings. He also, in a footnote (p. 19), qualifies his extreme view regarding the manner of tone production by admitting that a beautiful tone does not necessarily denote "musicality" on the performer's part (being simply one phase of the music produced—the sensuous). Another truth, too often overlooked, is that "a bias towards music does not always bring in its train those valuable muscular talents that render the acquisition of technique so much more easy of attainment." One more point, and we must take leave of this suggestive if badly written book. The remarks in the first appendix, on incapacitating nervousness at a public performance being usually only the result of inattention to the music, are alone worth the price of this volume.

The Balkans from Within. By Reginald Wyon. Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons, 1904.

It is not from very far within that Mr. Wyon views his subject. Many of its most curious and basic elements—the remarkable survival, for instance, of the ancient Aryan family-tribe—he scarcely hints at. Statistics, too, and such dry, though occasionally useful, matters are beneath his notice. But for what may be termed the rapid-fire picturesque, be it in scenery, manners and customs, or the fascinating game of politics, he has a quick eye and a facile hand. Nor is he merely the ordinary tourist. Given that wonderful modern product known as a special correspondent, let him be an Englishman, a fair linguist and a good shot, arm him with triple brass, add some previous knowledge of the country and an enviable capacity for absorbing apparently unlimited "tots of raki," and you have his nearly ideal qualifications as an observer in the Balkans. Mr. Wyon speaks, therefore, with considerable authority of persons, places, and occurrences not easily accessible to the average globe-trotter. And while he manhandles his native tongue rather more than we expect of a true-born Briton, yet his enthusiasm and descriptive force are fairly infectious. He carries the reader along for dozens of pages at a time on a single rush of narrative or incident that can no more be interrupted or left unfinished than one of his own rifle balls in mid-flight.

He opens, however, in stock-market parlance, rather dull, with a series of disquisitions on the latest developments in Turkey and the insurgent provinces. Like every one else who would speak of the Unspeakable, he falls into violent extremes, sounding a raucous blast in the advance-guard of the Turkophobes. Every crime in the Newgate calendar he sets down to the Turks, and many more. He dwells with disproportionate fury on the ragged uniforms of their army. Their very virtues are mere cloaks for vice—hospitality for treachery, loyalty for fanaticism, and so on. Per contra, the Bulgar insurgents are the incarnation of chivalry, intelligence, and heroism. Their campaign last year was a triumph, this year's will be the Turk's Waterloo. And with sundry wise waggings of a head weighted down with insurgent secrets, Mr. Wyon rushes into print to bid us watch the developments of the spring of 1904. This evident haste explains, but hardly extenuates, all manner of slips in composition, both his and his printer's. Now, most unfortunately for his pose as a prophet, recent "understandings" between the parties have rendered the spring of 1904 particularly peaceful in European Turkey; so that this portion of the book falls doubly flat.

The real meat of the volume follows—a series of brief and brilliant impressions, instantaneous pen-photographs, as it were, of life to-day in Macedonia, Southern Bulgaria, Montenegro, and Albania, obscured occasionally by "newspaper English," and with practically no relief from the present tense, yet admirable for fidelity, sympathy, vigor, and variety. To one who knows something of the country, especially, they appeal irresistibly. Many and cordial were the welcomes our author received—from smart officers of Bulgarian garrisons, who learned with immediate gusto how to sing "Auld Lang Syne" with one foot on the mess-table; from holy hermits in well-nigh inaccessible mountain monasteries; from perspiring consuls in bedraggled border towns, hag-ridden with fear of a fresh outbreak; from lean, hawk-eyed mountaineers, inseparable equally from their Martinis and their politeness (and why will he persist in speaking of their white coats and leggings as made of "serge"?); from sole survivors of unspeakable massacres, huddled in dim corners of ravaged hamlets, and telling their awful tales in sobbing whispers; from the happy inmates of the Podgorica prison, whence if one escapes the others are sent out to look for him and lead him gently back to the fold; from village revellers on saints' days, when the all-overshadowing blood-feud is forgotten and sworn enemies kiss in the streets; and even from the much-telegraphed-of Vali of Monastir himself. As a fit climax, he winds up with a short trip into Albania, the "bad man's country" of the East. True, he was chaperoned by the itinerant Italian priest of the region, and even then did not get very far, but he kept his eyes open and made the most of his time; and it is a good deal to say that you have crossed that border at all.

The bulk of the volume, which is not remarkable as a piece of bookmaking, is distended with over a hundred rather poor photographic reproductions. An appended map considerately indicates some, though not many, of the places mentioned in the text. There is no index.

Aristote et l'Université de Paris pendant le XIIIe Siècle. Par G. H. Luquet. Paris: Ernest Leroux. 1904.

In this brochure, issued lately from the École des Hautes Études under the auspices of the Minister of Public Instruction, Professor Luquet discusses with learning and lucidity the attitude of the University of Paris towards Aristotle in the thirteenth century, and the relations, friendly or the reverse, which existed between the Church and the supreme authority in philosophy. The Faculty of Arts was at that period preliminary and subordinate to the Faculty of

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Theology; the method of instruction in each faculty was the same—a method based on authority. The sources of theology were the Scriptures and the Fathers; the sources of scientific instruction were the works of classical antiquity, with the interpretations of Latin or Jewish or Arabic commentators. The alchemists alone conducted *research*, in the modern sense, such as it was; but in the schools each science was studied, not from nature and observation, but in a book, which was supposed to sum up all that was known on the subject; the study of any particular science was identified and confounded with the study of the treatise in which it was summarized. Not only did the Faculty of Arts follow the method of the Faculty of Theology; its investigations and decisions were also limited and prescribed. The students and instructors must walk in a straight and narrow track. Certain fundamental doctrines, such as that of the Trinity and the Incarnation, they must not presume to question or discuss; others which bordered on theology they must decide "according to the Faith." The study of philosophy they must regard as a useful gymnastic to train the intellect for the defence of the Faith; it is a sword of defence and attack—a mundane ornament and jewel, which, say St. Augustine and Gregory IX., as a spoil from the Egyptians, the faithful may wisely appropriate for the enrichment and adorning of the Church and its chosen people.

In spite, however, of ecclesiastical bars and warnings, each Faculty tended in its teaching and discussions to trespass and to stray beyond prescribed limits. In 1277 the Bishop of Paris, Étienne Tempier, complains that certain members of the Faculty of Arts are maintaining heresies, on the pretext that "though false according to the Faith, they are true according to reason." By a delicious imbroglio, he condemns in the same epistle some proposition of St. Thomas, who himself castigates a zealous tyro, ensnared by the teaching of Averroes, for declaring, "By reason I necessarily arrive at one conclusion, but by faith I firmly hold the opposite." Such were the somersaults and acrobatic feats of the unfortunates condemned to ride two horses that pulled in opposite directions.

So immense was the vogue of Aristotle at this period, so completely did it dominate the minds of men, that, after a brief struggle, it imposed terms even on the Church itself. In 1210, a council held at Paris condemned his works, except the treatises on Logic, and their reading was prohibited under pain of excommunication. But this prohibition was practically removed in 1237; and from the middle of the thirteenth century the entire range of his writings not only are tolerated by the Faculty of Arts, but make part of the official programme. From this date he becomes an honored ally, and, as it were, a thirteenth Apostle. His treatises on formal logic had always lent themselves easily to the methods of theology. When applied to certain premises drawn from Scripture texts whose truth was assumed, they led to orthodox conclusions; they played admirably the rôle of *ancilla theologiæ* which the Middle Ages ascribed to philosophy in general.

The strictly philosophic works, however, received through the medium of the Arabs, presented very serious stumbling-blocks. They seemed to impugn the doctrine of a Creator and of the immortality of the soul. What was to be done with this formidable opponent? After a brief period of denunciation, a *modus vivendi* was brought about, and an alliance was secured with so great a name. This was accomplished by the labors of Albertus Magnus, and especially of Thomas Aquinas, who by their commentaries tried to purge the Peripatetic philosophy of the errors of Averroism, or at any rate to reconcile it with Christian doctrine. Such a policy, M. Luquet remarks, has often been pursued by the Church—to attack and proscribe, so long as she believes herself the stronger; to make terms, if she cannot conquer; to conciliate adroitly; to pass over differences; to create a perhaps illusory *modus vivendi*. From Galileo to Mivart, from Aristotle to the Abbé Loisy, these tactics have been consistently followed; and at this very moment Pius X. is scolding France and discovering the virtues of "that great and noble nation, Germany."

There is nothing controversial in Professor Luquet's dissertation; he simply cites from contemporary documents and draws conclusions dispassionately. The present study is the forerunner of a work in which he promises to discuss the knowledge of the works and teaching of Aristotle possessed by the Middle Ages, and incidentally to sketch the development of thought in that period, with its anticipation of modern ideas. Such a treatise would be distinguished by the merits of this preliminary chapter—ample learning, constant reference to original sources, precision, clearness, and sobriety of judgment.

New England in Letters. By Rufus Rockwell Wilson. A. Wessels Co. 1904.

The contents of this volume represent a series of actual visits to the spots associated in a more or less intimate degree with New England writers of all sorts. The pilgrimage which covered so much ground was not continuous, but apparently considerable sections were included in each separate itinerary. The emphasis of Mr. Wilson's journal is much more personal than topical. Little is made of the scenery of any given writer's region or of the character of the local situation (whether town or country) in which his childhood or his later years were passed. What results is some brief and superficial account of the more prominent writers, with briefer mention of the less prominent, but without any nice corresponding proportioning of space. In many instances there is a word of honorable mention and no more. A good deal of pains has been taken to identify, with street and number, the houses in which the different poets and other writers of the extended catalogue have lived and died. Over and above the satisfaction of such curiosity as there may be with regard to these particulars, the prosperity of the book depends very much upon the ignorance of the person reading it. One must know very little of the life and work of New England's principal men of letters who does not know a great deal more than is here meagrely set down.

A very general impression of Mr. Wilson's book is likely to be that he is resolved to "claim everything" for New England, but it should be remembered that he avails himself of every circumstance of birth, residence, and literary association to lengthen the roll of his *dramatis personæ* and to increase its interest. Poe may have been the least New Englandish of American writers, but accidentally he was born in Boston, and his early 'Tamerlane and Other Poems,' published in Boston, was avowedly "by a Bostonian." Mr. Howells was born in Ohio, but for a time he lived "as far away as Belmont," Mass., from his native town.

The personal association has been worked, perhaps, more carefully than the literary. The Isles of Shoals, for example, fail to suggest Lowell's splendid "Appledore," and Marblehead is silent except for Agnes Surriage and Skipper Ireson, though Longfellow's "Fire of Driftwood," Whittier's "Sea Dream," and Lucy Larcom's "Hannah," are all Marblehead poems. It is, perhaps, hardly worth while to correct so persistent an error as "Floyd" Ireson. The skipper's name was Benjamin, and Mr. Wilson's correction of Whittier's ballad is as far as that from the literal truth of Ireson's history. Moreover, the Fountain Inn, of which Agnes Surriage was the pretty maid, was "down town" and not, as Mr. Wilson writes, "in the upper reaches of the town." Similar errors that obtrude themselves here and there suggest a fear that Mr. Wilson took little pains to verify his local information. When we read of Salem that "there was reared 'The House of the Seven Gables,' " we might think the tale was written in Salem if we did not know that it was written in Lenox, especially as it is ignored in connection with Hawthorne's Lenox year. It is a good story that tags the frigate *Constitution's* escape from her pursuers with Dr. Bentley's famous text, "There go the ships," but we had supposed the occasion for this text was Jefferson's famous embargo.

There is considerable loose writing in the eleventh chapter, "The Berkshires and Beyond." The uninformed are permitted to believe that Cummington, the birthplace of Bryant, is in Berkshire County instead of Hampshire. More positively misleading is the statement, "The site of the house in which the poet was born is not in Cummington." What is meant is that it is not in the present village street. It is now, and always was, in the township, and at the time of Bryant's birth was in its more thickly settled part. There is not a word concerning the interesting building which was Dr. Bryant's office, and in which he discovered the manuscript of "Thanatopsis" in that form in which it was first printed in the *North American Review*. The advice to travellers from Cummington to Pittsfield to "shape their course through Plainfield and Lanesboro," is queer, to say the least, or would be if the exigencies of a literary pilgrimage had any respect for the conveniences of ordinary travel.

The index is of personal names only, and as there are about three hundred of these, the extent of Mr. Wilson's inquiries and his information is evidently so wide that even the best informed must find here many items that will refresh their memories if they do not increase their knowledge.

South Carolina as a Royal Province, 1719-1776. By W. Roy Smith, Ph.D. Macmillan. 1903. Pp. xix., 441.

Mr. Smith's attractively printed book naturally suggests comparison with the late

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Edward McCrady's great history of South Carolina, the second and third volumes of which deal with the same period. As a matter of fact, however, the two works have comparatively little in common either in subject-matter or in method of presentation. While Mr. McCrady gives us a detailed political and military history, Mr. Smith devotes himself to a study of the political and administrative institutions of the colony during the period of direct royal control. In the choice of material, too, there is a noticeable difference. Mr. McCrady appears to have relied almost wholly upon printed matter, while Mr. Smith has made careful and painstaking use of the manuscript records and Assembly journals of the province. The result is a volume which not only is a welcome and valuable addition to the still scanty literature of American institutional history, but also opens up a considerable mass of historical material hitherto little used, but of first-rate importance.

After a brief introductory chapter on the events of the Proprietary period, Mr. Smith proceeds at once to a detailed examination of the land system of South Carolina, with particular reference to the land frauds to which the early system of grants gave rise, and to the long and bitter controversy over the payment of quit-rents. Then follow instructive chapters on the development of governmental activities, executive, legislative, and judicial, the duties of the colonial agent, the organization of the militia and colonial defence, and the financial history of the province, ending with a chapter on the downfall of the royal Government and the events leading directly to independence. The survey of the financial history, with its paper-money controversies and its steady resistance (on the part of the commons House of Assembly) to the claim of the Council to a share in financial legislation, is particularly full, as is the account of the critical years from 1760 to 1776. We could have wished for a fuller treatment of the colonial agent, but as a whole the apportionment of space is adequate.

We must leave unnoticed most of the numerous matters of detail on which Mr. Smith's researches shed a needed light, and confine ourselves to one or two general observations. Mr. Smith, as he tells us in his preface, has had in mind more than simply an institutional history of colonial South Carolina. To him, the whole period has added significance because of its bearing on the causes and nature of the Revolution. We are not, indeed, now told for the first time that the causes of the Revolution are to be sought far back of 1763, but few scholars have as yet applied themselves to a study of the neglected years subsequent to 1688, in which the preparation for revolt and independence was everywhere being made. It is because of this point of view that Mr. Smith's volume will have, for students of the Revolutionary age, unquestioned value. In the quarrels with the Crown over land grants, quit-rents, and official salaries and fees, and with the Governor and Council over the control of legislation and the colony purse; in the contempt for the crowd of needy place-hunters who monopolized executive offices in the colony; and in the stout insistence on the rights of Englishmen, albeit those rights were in the eighteenth century as much theoretical as actual, South Carolina learned through two generations the power of stubborn and united resistance. No more than other parts of the empire was it mindful of consistency or scrupulous about means, but it was at one with its neighbors in opposing external restriction and control. It is surprising that historians should so often have treated the American revolt as an outbreak developed *de novo* in ten or a dozen years, instead of as the culmination of a development whose beginnings are not far from the establishment of the colonies themselves.

In one or two respects Mr. Smith's book is (perhaps designedly) incomplete. There are two reactions, if so we may call them, in American colonial history to which no writer has thus far paid adequate attention. One is the influence of political and social events in England on the colonial policy of the Board of Trade and the Crown; the other is the relation between local conditions and local opinion in the colonies and the policy of the colonial assemblies. So far as England is concerned, we do not yet know very much about the effect of public opinion, as itself largely determined by changing political and economic conditions in the eighteenth century, on the growth of colonial policy; while in no colony are we yet sure as to the accuracy with which the representatives of the people reflected the real attitude of the people themselves. On neither of these points does Mr. Smith's book afford great additional light. The colony rather than England is the object of his scrutiny, and that, too, on the colonial rather than on the local side. We still want to know, on the one hand, not only what England did, but also what she thought she was doing; and, on the other, to what extent colonial officials and assemblymen recognized a colonial public opinion. Mr. Smith has set forth so admirably the institutional side of the case as it appears in South Carolina that we should be glad to anticipate a broader treatment of the same period at his hands.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

"Ask Mamma." New ed. D. Appleton & Co.

Brassey, Lord. Fifty Years of Progress and the New Fiscal Policy. 4th impression. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.40 by mail.

Crashaw, Richard. Steps to the Temple, and Other Poems. *Cambridge (Eng.) University Press*; New York: Macmillan.

Edmonds George. Facts and Fancies concerning the War on the South, 1861-1865. Memphis, Tenn.: A. R. Taylor & Co. 50 cents.

Ferree, Barr. Pennsylvania: A Primer. New York: Leonard Scott Publication Co. $3.00.

Grimm, George. Pluck: The Fortunes of a Little "Greenhorn" in America. Milwaukee, Wis.: Germania Pub. Co.

Herrman, Wilhelm. Faith and Morals. Translated from the German by Donald Matheson and Robert W. Stewart. (Crown Theological Library, Vol. VI.) G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25 net.

Illustrated Catalogue of a Loan Collection of Portraits of English Historical Personages who died prior to the year 1625. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. $2.

Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. A. 2d series. Vol. ix. L-Lyuri. Washington: Government Printing Office.

Kilburn, N. The Story of Chamber Music. London: Walter Scott Pub. Co.; New York: Scribners. $1.25 net.

Leroy-Beaulieu, Pierre. Les Etats-Unis au XXe Siècle. Paris: Armand Colin; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer. 4 fr.

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